

Gujarati, belonging to the Indo-Aryan family, is spoken by approximately 46,100,000 speakers. It is the official language of Gujarat state and is also used in 16 other countries around the world, thanks to the Gujarati diaspora. Having several dialects, which moreover have been little explored, Gujarati is very rich in literary style and has a long literary tradition. The grammatical analysis proposed here is of Gujarati as taught and used by educated speakers of the language.

The grammar provides basic information on the phonology, writing system, morphology and the syntax of the language. A short introduction outlines the geolinguistic situation of Gujarati. The chapter on phonology studies the vowels, consonants as well as the syllable structure of Gujarati. Special attention is given to the murmur sounds of the language, since these are a marked feature of Gujarati. A short overview of the syllable structure and of the prosody of Gujarati is also furnished. The analysis of the writing system starts off with a brief historical sketch of the evolution of Gujarati graphemes, followed by a script grammar of the consonants, vowels/matras, and other modifiers. Conjuncts and ligatures both of the vowels and the consonants are also analysed. Gujarati is essentially a morphological language and hence major stress is laid on its morphology. This chapter describes nominal and verbal morphology as well as the adjuncts. There are two numbers, three genders and three cases, with the nominal elements being declined according to their final elements. The analysis of the verbal system outlines the tenses and the moods. Causatives, which are a special feature of Gujarati, are of particular interest. Non-declined elements constitute adverbs, clitics, particles and connectives. A special section is also given over to derivational morphology with a study of the most important suffixes and prefixes of the language, derived both from Sanskrit and Persian. The broad overview of syntax describes the basic sentence types of Gujarati, word-order, participial structures, negation and coordination and subordination. The last chapter provides a list of the most common idiomatic structures of the language.

The study is essentially corpus-linguistics driven and examples provided are based on a large oral and written corpus of present-day Gujarati. For the convenience of those familiar with the Gujarati script, the examples are transcribed both in IPA and in Gujarati.

LSIEL 28
ISBN 3 89586 723 3

LE
LINCOM EUROPA
academic publications



LINCOM Studies in Indo-European Linguistics

A GRAMMAR OF GUJARATI
Raimond Doctor

**LINCOM Studies in
Indo-European Linguistics**



A GRAMMAR OF GUJARATI

Raimond Doctor

full text research
abstracts of all titles
monthly updates

LINCOM webshop
www.lincom-europa.com

2004
LINCOM EUROPA

LINCOM GmbH
Gmunder Str. 35
D-81379 Muenchen

LINCOM.EUROPA@t-online.de
<http://home.t-online.de/home/LINCOM.EUROPA>
www.lincom-europa.com

webshop: lincom.at

All rights reserved, including the rights of translation into any foreign language. No part of this book may be reproduced in any way without the permission of the publisher.

Printed in E.C.
Printed on chlorine-free paper

Die Deutsche Bibliothek - CIP Cataloguing-in-Publication-Data

A catalogue record for this publication is available from Die Deutsche Bibliothek (<http://www.ddb.de>)

CONTENTS	
Abbreviations and Symbols.	i
Introduction.	1-3
Chapter 1: PHONOLOGY.	4-16
1.1. Vowels.	4
1.2. Consonants.	8
1.3. Vowel Clusters, Diphthongs, Semi-Vowels.	13
1.4. Syllable Structure.	14
1.5. Suprasegmentals.	15
Chapter 2: WRITING SYSTEM.	17-21
2.1. Vowels.	17
2.2. Consonants.	18
2.3. Modifiers.	20
2.4. Writing Rules.	21
Chapter 3: MORPHOLOGY.	22-71
3.1. Nominal Morphology.	22
3.1.1. Nouns.	22
3.1.2. Adjectives.	25
3.1.3. Numerals.	26
3.1.4. Pronouns.	30
3.1.5. Nominalisers.	34
3.2. Verbs.	37
3.2.0. Verb Profile.	37
3.2.1. Active Verb Forms.	38
3.2.2. Verb Variations.	46
3.2.3. Causative Verb Forms.	49
3.2.4. Passive Verb Forms.	52
3.2.5. Impersonal Verb Forms.	53
3.2.6. Modal Auxiliaries.	53
3.2.7. Negation.	59
3.3. Compounds.	61
3.4. Modifiers.	66
3.4.1. Adverbs.	66
3.4.2. Connectives.	67
3.4.3. Postpositions.	69
3.4.4. Interjections.	71
Chapter 4: SYNTAX	72-89
4.1. Syntactic Types.	72
4.2. Sentence Typologies	73
4.2.1. Simple Sentences.	73
4.2.2. Compound Sentences.	80
4.2.3. Complex Sentences.	82
4.3. Particles.	87

Chapter 5: SAMPLE TEXTS

90	
93	
96	

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

1.	1 st Person.
2.	2 nd Person.
3.	3 rd Person.
Abl.	Ablative.
Acc.	Accusative.
acc.	Accusative.
agent.part.	Agentive Participle.
Agt.	Agent.
asp.	Aspirated.
aux.	Auxiliary.
cond.	Conditional.
conn.part.	Connective Participle.
erg.	Ergative.
excl.	Exclamation.
F.	Feminine.
Fem.	Feminine.
fut.	Future.
fut.part.	Future Participle.
Gen.	Genitive.
imp.	Imperative.
incl.	Inclusive.
inf.	Infinitive.
inf.part.	Infinitive Participle.
Inst.	Instrumental.
Loc.	Locative.
M.	Masculine.
Masc.	Masculine.
N.	Neuter.
Neut.	Neuter.
Nom.	Nominative.
N.P.	Noun Phrase.
obj.	Object.
Obl.	Oblique.
obl.	Oblique.
pass.	Passive.
PastPart.	Past Participle.
Pl.	Plural.
prest.	Present.
Prest.Part.	Present Participle.
rem.	Remote.
resp.	Respect form.
Sg.	Singular.
subj.	Subject.
unasp.	Unaspirated.
vd.	Voiced.
vl.	Voiceless.
Voc.	Vocative.
V.P.	Verb Phrase.

INTRODUCTION

Gujarati is an Indo-Aryan language spoken by about 50 million people worldwide, making it the 20th most spoken language in the world and the 6th most used in India. Of these, the majority reside in India, with other speakers in East Africa, UK and Pakistan and USA. It is also the official language of Gujarat state in India.

Geographical Location and Economic Profile:

Gujarat, which has a surface area of 196,024 square kilometers is situated between 20°1' and 24°7' north latitude and 68°4' and 74°4' east longitude on the west coast of India. and a large part of the region to the West is open to the Arabian Sea. Gujarat has the longest coast line 1290km. It shares its boundaries with Pakistan which is separated from it by the Rann of Kutch. The Indian states which border Gujarat are Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh to the North and North-East and Maharashtra to the South. Geographically seen Gujarat is made up of three geographical regions: the peninsular area, traditionally known as Saurashtra which is essentially a hilly tract sprinkled with low mountains; to the north-east is a barren desert land known as Kutch and finally the mainland which is a level plain of alluvial soil.

The languages spoken in the areas contiguous to Gujarat within India are Marwari, Hindi, and Marathi. In the case of Pakistan, it is Sindhi, Punjabi and Urdu. The population was 50,596,992 (Census of India, 2001.) i.e. an average density of around 200 persons per sq km. In terms of population it holds the tenth position among the States and Union territories in the country. More than 70 percent of the population is Hindu; there are also significant minorities of Muslims and Jains in Gujarat. Buddhists and Parsis constitute small groups. As per the 2001 census the literacy rate in the State has shown improvement having increased to 69.97% when compared to 61.57% ten years back at the 1991 Census.

The people of Gujarat are industrious and hard-working. Gujarat has always been considered as one of India's most industrialized states with a wide variety of industries ranging from petro-chemicals to diamonds to the manufacture of textiles, vegetable oils, chemicals. The Gujaratis are also an extremely mobile population and can be found not only all over India but also in Africa, America and Europe.

Historical Background:

To understand the evolution of the Gujarati language, one should understand the historical factors which through the centuries have shaped this region. The region that is now considered as Gujarat was home to one of the oldest civilisations in South Asia dating back to 2500 BC. The Indus Valley Civilization is the earliest known civilisation represented by two great city-sites: Harappa and Mohenjo Daro. This culture was marked by a degree of specialisation in artifacts. The characteristic features of this civilisation were the distinctive black-on-red pottery, ceramic toys and figurines, and above all the stamp seals with a script that remains yet to be deciphered. By the 3rd century BC, Gujarat was annexed to the Maurya Empire. Successively Gujarat came under the sway of the Guptas and the Mitrakas. By the 12th Century A.D. Gujarat was ruled by the Chauhan dynasty. At the end of the 13th century, Gujarat came under Muslim rule. Through the sea-route which was open for trade, the traders from Iran and Arabic countries started coming into Gujarat. A trade system was established and this led to the flourishing of Indo-Islamic culture which is a characteristic feature of many cities of Gujarat. The British East India Company and the French Compagnie des Indes established themselves in Gujarat around the 17th Century. As the Moghul rule over India slowly weakened, in 1818 the British East India Company took control of Gujarat administering the state through local princely rulers. With the independence of India in 1947, Gujarat became part of the state of Bombay. In 1960 Bombay state was split up, and Gujarat

was formed from the northern and western portions, which were predominantly Gujarati-speaking areas. The remainder of Bombay state became Maharashtra state.

Gujarat has thus been the melting pot of various civilisations and cultures and this has led to a large number of cultures which however are unified by a common language: Gujarati. The most prominent religion is Hinduism and there are a large number of temples of which the most notable are the temple of Somnath, which dates back to the 10th century. Gujarat is also home to the Jain community, the followers of Mahavira. Buddhism is also markedly popular and the oldest Buddhist remains in the shape of edicts of Ashoka date back to the 3rd century. Finally Gujarat is also the region where the Parsis, who came from Iran in the 10th Century to escape the Muslim conquest settled down.

Linguistic Profile

As a language Gujarati can be traced right back to the 12th century with Hemachandra Acharya's formal grammar. The earliest traces of the literature survive in oral tradition especially of two great poets: Narasinh Mehta and Premananda (both ca. 17th century). Present day Gujarati has a considerable vocabulary from Persian owing to over five centuries of Muslim rule. Gujarati language and literature are vibrant even today and the literature has exercised considerable influence over other literatures in India.

The language recognised as standard by Gujarati speakers, is the one spoken in the region that stretches from Vadodara (Baroda) to the South to Gandhinagar to the North and from Surendranagar to the West to Kheda district in the South. It is the language that is used by the media: T.V., Radio as well as by the educated masses for reading, writing and for communication. Although relatively determined, certain aspects of the language such as the spellings still need to be standardised and Gujarati displays considerable spelling variants.

A large number of dialects of Gujarati have been identified but have been little studied and explored. Of these, four are recognised as major: Surati spoken in the southern area of Gujarat with Surat as its representative city; Kathiawadi or Saurashtra spoken in the region of Kathiawad; Patani which is a northern dialect named after the city of Patan and Vadodari spoken in Vadodara. Other variations such as Parsi Gujarati, Mumbai Gujarati, Kharwa, Kakari constitute minority dialects.

Existing Research

Though Gujarati is an important language, very few grammars exist in languages other than in Gujarati. These are written in Sanskrit mould and are specifically tailored to the autochthonous population. The oldest grammar of Gujarati in English dates back to around 1842. Mention needs to be made of Cardona's *A Gujarati Reference Grammar* (1965), which is rightly considered a land-mark in Gujarati grammars and is often quoted by Gujarati grammarians. To a large extent, the present study is based on the structural model provided by Cardona. The bibliography provided at the end of the book furnishes an exhaustive survey of serious grammars as well as important research papers written both in Gujarati as well as other languages.

Organisation of the Book

The present study is neither a pedagogical grammar nor is it a reference grammar of the language, but aims at providing a short and concise linguistic description of the standard language. Although used and recognised as standard, the language has yet to be well-defined. Gujarati spelling norms have still to be determined as well as the genders of nouns and certain rules regarding usage of verbs, where a considerable divergence can be observed both in speech as well as in grammars and dictionaries. The present monograph tries to accommodate these variations.

The book is divided into four chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the phonology of Gujarati. Vowels, Consonants, Syllable structure as well as Suprasegmental phenomena are studied. Chapter 2 provides an insight into the writing system of Gujarati. Although the basic rules of writing are derived from Devanagari, the writing system of Gujarati has its own character as well as ligature set. The third chapter treats of the morphology of Gujarati. Like a majority of Indo-Aryan languages, Gujarati is a language where the morphological component is predominant. The basic behaviour of Gujarati nominalisers (nouns, adjectives, pronouns) and verbal forms is analysed in terms of their inflection and derivation. A short note on adjuncts treats of the invariable elements in Gujarati which are mainly lexical items but exhibit an interesting pattern. Chapter IV provides a broad overview of the syntax of Gujarati. Sentence types, word-order, coordination and subordination are described. The chapter on sample texts provides interlinear representation as well as a free translation of some Gujarati texts.

Chapter 1.

Phonology

In this chapter a brief sketch of the basic phonology of Gujarati will be presented. The phonemes of the language will be analysed: vowels, consonants and diphthongs followed by an analysis of the syllable structure of Gujarati and eventually a short survey of suprasegmentals with special reference to juncture, stress and intonation.

1.1. Vowels

The vowels of Gujarati can be classified in terms of 3 primary features which yield the basic vowels of the language and 2 secondary features which modify the basic vowel set. The primary features which Gujarati shares with other Indo-Aryan languages are:

1. Tongue Position: Front, Central and Back;
2. Tongue height: High, Low-High, Mid-High, Mean-Mid, Low-Mid, Low;
3. Lip Rounding: Unrounded vs. Rounded.

In addition two other features: Nasalisation and Breathiness modify these basic vowels. Gujarati admits therefore three major vowel sets :

A. Primary or Oral Vowels:

Gujarati has 10 primary vowels: /i/ high front, /I/ low high front, /e/ mid-high front, /ɛ/ low-mid front, /a/ low central, /ə/ mean-mid central, /ɔ/ lower mid back, /o/ higher-mid-back, /U/ low high back and /u/ high back.

Rounding and length are well demarcated. Only back vowels are rounded and the front vowels remain unrounded. Similarly the front and back, high and low-high vowels show a marked contrast for length.

Table 1:

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Low-High	I		U
High-Mid	e		o
Mean-Mid		ə	
Low-Mid	ɛ		ɔ
Low		a	

B. Nasalised Vowels:

Of the ten primary vowels, seven are nasalised. Nasalisation shows a marked distribution in that the high-mid vowels /e/ and /o/ are not nasalised. The short vowel /I/ is normally not nasalised, although in some dialectical forms, such as Parsi Gujarati, the nasal form is encountered. Statistically the most common nasalised vowel is ū.

Table 2:

	Front	Central	Back
High	ĩ		ū
Low-High			Ū
Mean-Mid		ə̄	
Low-Mid	ɛ̄		ɔ̄
Low		ã̄	

Certain speakers of Gujarati especially in Ahmedabad tend to use ɔ̄ and ə̄ indifferently.

C. Breathy Vowels:

Termed also as Murmured Vowels, these are produced by a modification of the laryngeal air-stream. The glottis is in *whisper* state: the posterior part of the vocal cords (arytenoidal glottis) is in an unvoiced position whereas the rest of the length of the vocal cords (the oral glottis) is in voiced position and vibrates more strongly than in the case of plain voice. The result is a breathy or murmured vowel. Gujarati admits eight murmured vowels whose distribution is shown below. The distribution is clearly marked: with the exception of the short low-high vowels, all other vowels can be "murmured". These are marginally used in Gujarati and according to Pandit (1966) were used as a stylistic variation in Gujarati literature. (For details on the phonemic distribution, cf. 1.1.1 below)

Table 3:

High	Front	Central	Back
	i'		u'
High-Mid	e'		o'
Mean-Mid		ə'	
Low-Mid	ɛ'		ɔ'
Low		a'	

1.1.1 Vowel Distribution:

Oral Vowels:

i High front unrounded		
id 'festival'	lidha 'took'	lakdji 'stick'
I Low-high front unrounded		
I Ija 'injury'	blladjı 'cat'	nahi 'no'
e High mid front unrounded		
e etlo 'so much'	vel 'creeper'	kohe 'says'
ɛ Low mid front unrounded		
ɛ em 'so'	bɛs 'sit'	be 'two'
a Low central unrounded		
a ap 'give'	kap 'cut'	kutra 'dogs'
ə Mean-mid central unrounded		
ə øre 'oh!'	rød 'cry'	østrø 'arms'
ɔ Low-mid back rounded		
ɔ ok 'vomit'	bøl 'ball'	jø 'see'
ø High-mid back rounded		
ø ødʒh 'wear'	bor 'jujuba fruit'	saro 'good'
U Low-high back rounded		
U Upad 'lift'	phUl 'fruit'	cakU 'knife'
u High back rounded		
u uni 'warm'	lukhi 'dry'	lu 'warm wind'

Nasal Vowels:

ĩ High front unrounded nasal		
ĩ ìtʃ 'brick'	chîkyo 'sneezed'	nahî 'no'
ə̄ Low mid front unrounded nasal		
ə̄ ēgol 'angle'	phēt̄o 'hat'	mē 'I'
ã̄ Low central unrounded nasal		
ã̄ ákh 'eye'	pāc 'five'	ma'rã 'my'

ə	Mean mid central unrounded nasal
ə̄	ə̄k 'edition'
ə̄k	rə̄k 'poor man'
ə̄	Low mid-back rounded nasal
ə̄	ghə̄cyo 'pierced'
ə̄	Low-high back rounded nasal
ə̄	marvə̄ 'to hit'
ə̄	High back rounded nasal
ə̄	ūt̄ 'camel'
ə̄	gūt̄h weave
—	—
Murmured Vowels:	
ī	High front unrounded
ī	ījhro eunuch
ī	bīdo frightened
ē	High mid front unrounded
ē	ēmna 'their'
ē	vēlā early
ɛ̄	Low mid front unrounded
ɛ̄	ɛ̄'no 'his'
ɛ̄	mēphil gathering
ā	Low central unrounded
ā	ā'b 'sky'
ā	vā'gon 'tigress
ə̄	Mean-mid central unrounded
ə̄	ə̄d̄j̄i
ə̄	t̄ōne 'to you'
ɔ̄	Low-mid back rounded
ɔ̄	ɔ̄'ddo 'post'
ɔ̄	pō'lū 'wide'
ō	High-mid back rounded
ō	ō'dyo 'wore'
ō	gō'd̄o 'horse'
ū	High back rounded
ū	ū'bo 'upright'
ū	cū'lo 'stove'
—	—

— indicates absence.

1.1.2 Vowel Contrasts:

1.1.2.1. Oral Vowels:

Front Vowels

/i/ vs /ɪ/	citri	'striped'	cɪtro	'pictures'
/e/ vs /ɛ/	mel̄	'meeting'	mel̄	'dirt'
/i/ vs /e/	tili	'match'	teli	'oil-vendor'
/ɪ/ vs /ɛ/	bll̄	'bill'	bel̄	'bell'
/ɪ/ vs /e/	llp̄	'cover'	lep̄	'ointment'
/i/ vs /e/	teni	'her' (Fem.)	tene	'to her'
/i/ vs /e/	vir	'bold'	ver	'vengeance'

Central Vowels

/ə/ vs /a/	mər	'die'	mar	'hit'
------------	-----	-------	-----	-------

Back Vowels

/u/ vs. /U/	cur	'crumbs'	cUk	'error'
/u/ vs. /o/	bhut̄	'ghost'	bhot̄	'simpleton'
/o/ vs. /ɔ/	khol̄	'open'	khol̄	'cave'

/U/ vs. /ɔ/	Ukal	'boil'	ogal	'cause to swallow'
/u/ vs. /o/	gand̄o	'fool'	gand̄u	'foolish'

Front, Central and Back Vowels:

/i/ vs. /u/	ji	'life'	ju	'louse'
/ɪ/ vs. /ʊ/	mɪl̄	'mill'	mUl̄	'price'

Three way variation

/e/ /ə/ /o/	jer	'subdued'	jər	'gold'
/e/ /a/ /ɔ/	kel̄	'banana'	kał	'time'
/e/ /a/ /o/	ched̄	'tease'	chad̄	'tease'
/e/ /e/ /o/	mel̄	'dirt'	məł	'meet'
/ɪ/ /a/ /u/	mir̄	'noble'	mar	'beat'

1.1.2.2. Nasal vs. Oral Vowels:

/i/ vs. /i/	cita	'worry'	cita	'pyre'
/ɛ̄/ vs. /ɛ/	pē̄t̄	'trousers'	pet̄	'stomach'
/ā/ vs. /a/	bādh	'build'	badžh	'flood'
/ə̄/ vs. /ə/	ə̄t̄	'end'	ə̄t̄	'condition'
/ɔ̄/ vs. /ɔ/	pōk̄	'parched millet'	pōk̄	'onomatopoeia'
/ū/ vs. /u/	vədhyū	'increased'	vədhu	'bride'

1.1.2.3. Murmured vs. Oral Vowels:

/ī/ vs. /i/	vīlo	'wheels'	vilo	'wills'
/ē/ vs. /e/	vēlo	'early'	velo	'creepers'
/ɛ̄/ vs. /ɛ/	mēlo	'castles'	melo	'dirty'
/ə̄/ vs. /ə/	pāt̄to	'strong man'	pāt̄to	'belt'
/ā/ vs. /a/	māro	'my'	maro	'beat'
/ɔ̄/ vs. /ɔ/	mō d̄ū	'face'	mōdū	'late'
/ō/ vs. /o/	d̄ōlvū	'make muddy'	d̄olvū	'to nod'
/ū/ vs. /u/	cū'lo	'stove'	euro	'fragments'

1.1.3 Phonemic Distribution of Vowels:

1.1.3.1. *Oral Vowels* can occur in all environments. However in final environments, the higher mid and lower mid front and back vowels are in free variation. Thus /e/ and /ə/ and similarly /o/ and /ɔ/ can be used freely. /je/ and /je/ can both mean 'this' just as /jo/ and /jɔ/ both mean 'see'. The number of words with such a distribution is very limited. Earlier TV and Radio used the lower mid forms, but this convention is no longer observed and speakers use the two forms indifferently.

Final /ə/ is rarely pronounced and is normally pronounced when preceded by clusters of 2 or 3 consonants: rudrə: Shiva, ḍəstra: weapon, vəstra: clothes

1.1.3.2. *Nasal Vowels* admit a specific distribution:

/ɪ/ is never nasalised; as are the higher-mid front /e/ and back /o/ vowels. In the case of vowels that are nasalised:

/ə/ can never occur in final position, except in the case of the exclamation /hə/ : ‘what!’. The vowels /Ū/ and /ū/ share a particular relationship: both can occur in medial position, but only /ū/ occurs in initial position and /Ū/ in final position. The latter is normally a morphological marker of the verbal infinitive as in /calvŪ/ ‘to walk’ or the nominal neuter marker as in /barṇŪ/ ‘door’. In the morphological analysis that follows, these vowels have been normalised to /ū/. Other instances are rare.

1.1.3.3 Murmured Vowels can occur only in initial and medial positions. Cardona (1965) mentions the free variation of /ra'/- /rah/ ‘road’, but this does not seem to exist today.

Murmured vowels exhibit an interesting distributional pattern.

When a vowel is followed by a voiced aspirate: /bh/, /dh/, /dʒh/ or /gh/, the aspirated consonant is reduced to its unaspirated form and the aspiration is transposed to the vowel which becomes murmured as a result. Both forms are acceptable:

/i:jdə/ or /i:jhdə/: ‘eunuch’.

In other instances where these vowels occur, the following environment is normally a voiced consonant, preferably /m/ /n/ /r/ /l/ or a semi-vowel /y/, /w/. /r/ seems to be the most favoured.

1.2. Consonants

The Consonants of Gujarati can be described in terms of a two way opposition: place of articulation: bi-labial, labio-dental, dental/alveolar, retroflex, palatal, velar, glottal; manner of articulation: stops, nasals, fricatives, trills, flaps, laterals and semi-vowels.

Table 4

	Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Dental	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
	Dental						
Stops							
vl. unasp.	p		t	t̪	c	k	
vl. asp.	ph		th	ʈh	ch	kh	
vd. unasp.	b		d	ɖ	j	g	
vd. asp.	bh		dh	ɖh	jh	gh	
Nasals							
	m		n	ɳ	ɳ	ɳ	
Fricatives							
vl.	s	ś	ʂ				h
vd.	z						
Lateral							
		l	ɭ				
Trills							
		r					
Flaps							
			ɾ				
Semivowels							
w	v			y			

1.2.1. Distribution of Consonants:

Gujarati has 37 consonants. With the exception of ɳ, ɳ, ɳ, ,ɳ, ʂ, v, w; the other consonants can occur in all positions as shown below:

p voiceless un aspirated bi-labial stop

pal ‘keep’ papi ‘wicked’

ph voiceless aspirated bi-labial stop

phel ‘fruit’ dəphən ‘burial’

pap ‘sin’

maph ‘forgive’

b	voiced unaspirated bi-labial stop		
bəl	‘strength’	əmba	‘goddess’
bh	voiced unaspirated bi-labial stop		
bhal	‘lance’	abhar	‘thanks’
t	voiceless unaspirated dental stop		
tal	‘beat’	satmo	‘seventh’
th	voiceless aspirated dental stop		
thal	‘dish’	sthəl	‘place’
d	voiced unaspirated dental stop		
dəs	‘ten’	nodi	‘river’
dh	voiced aspirated dental stop		
dhu	‘dust’	ədhar	‘eighteen’
ʈ	voiceless unaspirated retroflex stop		
ʈək	‘lasts’	kəṭori	‘bowl’
ʈh	voiceless unaspirated retroflex stop		
ʈhik	‘O.K.’	aʈhmo	‘eighth’
ɖ	voiceless aspirated retroflex stop		
ɖa'g	‘stain’	väkɖū	‘twisted’
ɖh	voiced aspirated retroflex stop		
ɖhāk	‘(you) cover’	dadʒhi	‘beard’
c	voiceless unaspirated palatal stop		
cal	‘(you) walk’	vəcən	‘promise’
ch	voiceless aspirated palatal stop		
chōd	‘(you) leave’	pachəl	‘back’
j	voiced unaspirated palatal stop		
jəm	‘(you) eat’	rəja	‘leave (n.)’
jh	voiced aspirated palatal stop		
jhad	‘tree’	dajhyo	‘got burnt’
k	voiceless unaspirated velar stop		
kap	‘cut’	roke	‘he stops’
kh	voiceless aspirated velar stop		
kharū	‘salty’	rakhe	‘he keeps’
g	voiced unaspirated velar stop		
gam	‘town’	dago	‘cheating’
gh	voiced aspirated velar stop		
ghor	‘home’	vaghən	‘lioness’
m	voiced bilabial nasal		
mal	‘goods’	rəmwū	‘to play’
n	voiced dental nasal		
nał	‘horse-shoe’	eno	‘his’
ɳ	voiced retroflex nasal		
—		paɳi	‘water’
ɳ	voiced palatal nasal		
—		əɳjam	‘result’
ɳ	voiced velar nasal		
—		əɳgar	‘fire’

s voiceless dental fricative			
sat 'seven'	pəsər 'spread'	rəs 'interest'	
z voiced dental fricative		phIroz 'Feroze'	
zərin 'Zarine: name'	azad 'free'	koś 'dictionary'	
ś voiceless palatal fricative			
śrəm 'hard work'	kəśū 'some'		
ś voiceless retroflex fricative			
—	nəśt 'destroyed'	—	
h voiceless glottal fricative			
hek 'right'	ahar 'food'	rah 'road'	
l voiced dental lateral		mal 'goods'	
law 'bring'	khullū 'open'		
ł voiced retroflex lateral			
—	kaļi 'black'	kaļ 'time, age'	
r voiced dental trill			
rəm '(you) play'	bharat 'Bharat'	kər '(you) do'	
ṭ voiced retroflex flap			
—	sac̪i 'sari'	jhaṭ 'tree'	
w voiced bilabial semivowel			
—	khəwad '(you) feed'	kəraw 'get to do'	
v voiced labio-dental semivowel			
vat 'story'	səvaṛ 'morning'	—	
y voiced palatal semivowel.			
yəm 'God of death'	awyo 'came'	bhəy 'fear'	

1.2.2. Consonantal contrast:

Phonemic contrasts of the consonants of Gujarati are given below. Distributional variants will be discussed in 1.2.3.

A. Stops:

Bilabials

paļ 'instant'	mapi 'measured'	map 'measure (n)'
phəļ 'fruit'	maphi 'forgiveness'	maph 'forgiven'
bar 'bar'	səbər 'patience'	ub 'fungus'
bhar 'weight'	səbhər 'filled'	ubh 'overflow'

Dentals

tar 'wire'	patrū 'leaf'	sat 'seven'
thar 'dead'	pathrū 'I spread'	sath 'with'
dəm 'strength'	mədo 'pride'	vəd 'dark phase of the moon'
dhəm 'heavy noise'	mədho 'honeys'	vədh 'grow'

Retroflexes

ṭokvū 'to tease'	pəṭo 'rail'	paṭ 'stool'
ṭhokvū 'to hammer'	pəṭho 'lessons'	paṭh 'lesson'
ḍaļ 'branch'	mudji 'capital'	rađ 'cry'
ḍhal 'shield'	mudhi 'stupid'	rađh 'attach'

Palatais

car 'four'	vicar 'thought'	pāc 'five'
char 'ashes'	vichəq 'dishevel'	pūch 'five'

jal 'net'	sujwū 'to swell'	suj 'swell'
jhal 'flame'	sujhwū 'to come to mind'	sujh 'come to mind'
<i>Velars</i>		
kaļ 'time'	śakət 'cart'	nak 'nose'
khaļ 'skin'	śakhət 'hard'	nakh 'put'
gal 'cheek'	gagər 'water pot'	bhog 'sacrifice'
ghal 'insert'	gaghər 'petticoat'	ogh 'stream'
B. Nasals:		
man 'believe'	mamo 'uncle'	mam 'food in child's vocabulary'
nan 'bread'	mano 'believe'	man 'believe'
—	maṇo '(you respect) enjoy'	maṇ 'you enjoy'
—	səṇco 'mould'	—
—	rəṇgo '(you) paint'	—

C. Fricatives:

/s/, /ʃ/, /ʂ/		
sar 'seven'	paso 'die (Pl.)'	nas 'run'
śar 'hole'	paśo 'snare'	naś 'ruin'
—	naśt 'ruined'	—

/s/ and /h/		
sar 'résumé'	vəsi 'she stayed'	ras 'dance'
har 'garland'	vəhi 'note book'	rah 'road'

D. Laterals:

lo '(you) take'	kəlaś 'water pot'	lal 'red'
—	kəlađś 'spire'	laļ 'saliva'

E. Semi-Vowels :

var 'blow'	vāewū 'to read'	khaw 'eat'
yar 'friend'	vācyū 'read (PastPart.)'	khay 'he eats'

F. Trill vs. Flap:

rat 'night'	sari 'good'	par 'ledge'
—	sac̪i 'sari'	paṭ 'you drop'

1.2.3. Phonemic Distribution of Consonants:

Of the 37 consonants to be found in Gujarati, the following cannot be found in initial position: ṣ, p, n, l, ḡ, ś, ṣ, n, ṣ and ś are not to be found in final position either.

Stops:

A voiced implosive /b/ exists in the speech of a large number of Gujarati speakers and is normally found in loan words from English beginning with a /b/ and followed by /u/ or /o/. Thus one hears /buk/ and /Buk/ 'book' in free variation. The quality of implosion is very light, unlike Sindhi where it is strongly marked.

/f/ and /ph/ are freely interchangeable in the speech of educated speakers who have been influenced by English. One hears /phukət/ and /fukət/ 'free' in free variation.

Nasals:

/ŋ/ and /ɳ/ are variants of an archiphoneme /N/ and can occur in only specific environments. The first is used only when followed by palatal stops /c/ /j/ /ch/ /jh/ and the second with corresponding velars: /k/ /kh/ /g/ /gh/.

rəng: colour ənjəli: Anjali

Similarly the retroflex nasal /ɳ/, in medial position can only be used when followed by any of the retroflex stops.

/pɳʈ/ 'trousers'. /pʈɳɖ/ : a small heap.

In the written system, /ɳ/ and /ɳ/ are rarely used and are replaced by the corresponding anuswar sign. (cf. Chapter 2.) The same is the case with /ɳ/ in medial position.

Fricatives:

Retroflex /ʂ/ is used only in combination with /ʈ/ /spriʂʈ/ 'clear'. In all other environments it is the palatal /ʂ/ which is used: /cîsti/ 'Name of a Sufi saint'.

/z/ is a loan phoneme from Perso-Arabic languages and English and is used to transcribe words borrowed from these languages such as /zərin/ 'Zarine', /saiz/ 'size', /azad/ 'free. /j/ is used in all other cases. In loan words which have been totally integrated into Gujarati /z/ is replaced by /j/ as in /jor/: strength (originally /zor/), jehr 'poison' (zâher in Persian).

Flaps

Only /d/ can occur in initial position. In medial position it occurs only when preceded by /ɳ/ or /r/. /ɳ/ occurs in all other positions (normally intervocalic). /ɳ/ and /d/ are in free variation in final position.

	Initial	Medial	Final
d	dutI 'navel'	inɖu 'egg'	ɔɖo 'room'
r	—	sari 'sari'	cɔɳgi 'book'

Semivowels

/v/ and /w/ share the following environment:

In Initial position both /v/ and /w/ are used. /v/ is used before a vowel: /var/ 'blow' or when followed by /r/ or /y/ as in /vrat/ 'vow' or /vyaj/ 'interest'. /w/ occurs in all other positions. In medial environment /v/ and /w/ can be interchanged as in /dəva/ or /dəwa/ 'medicine. Only /w/ occurs in final environment.

1.2.4. Gemination:

Basically all consonants of Gujarati can be geminated with the exception of /ɳ/, /ɳ/, /ʂ/, /ʂ/, /h/, /ɳ/, /ɳ/ and /z/.

cəppəl 'sandal'	dəbbo 'box'	cummalis '44'
sətta 'power'	mədɖo 'flux'	məgənnne 'to Magan'
pəʈʈo 'belt'	khaḍḍo 'hole'	əɳqa 'elder brother'
bəccō 'boy (slang)	lijat 'pleasure'	əɳqa 'elder brother'
cokko '4 in cricket'	cəggō '6'	əɳqa 'elder brother'
gusso 'anger'		
chello 'last'		
əɳʈəraʃtriya 'international'		
bhawwū 'to like'	səyyəd 'Sayyad'	

ɳ and r are rare and occur only in the sequences given above. əɳqa is in fact a Marathi loan coming through Dravidian sources. əɳʈəraʃtriya is a calque of 'international'. Other such words where clusters of /ɳr/ can be observed are: /intərəpʈ/: 'interrupt' etc.

When two aspirated consonants geminate, the first is unaspirated. Thus */jəbhbhō/ 'dress' becomes /jabbhō/.

*/buɖhɖho/ 'old man' is rendered as /buɖɖho/.

*/pəʈhʈər/ 'stone' becomes /pəʈhʈər/.

1.3. Vowel Clusters, Diphthongs, Semi-Vowels:

Gujarati is very rich in vowel clusters i.e. two or three vowels that occur sequentially,

(i) Two vowel clusters:

i	e /pie/ 'drinks'	a	o /lio/ 'take'	u/ū piū 'I drink'	ɔ
e	—	—	—	/teo/ 'they'	/beu/ 'both'
a	/khai/ 'eaten'	/khae/ 'ate'	—	/lao/ 'bring'	/khaū / 'will eat'
o	/boi/ 'fish'	/koehlo/ 'rotten'	—	—	/joū/ will see
u/ū	/sui/ 'having slept'	/sue/ 'is sleeping'	/dua/ 'benediction'	/suo/ 'sleep'	/suū/ 'will sleep'
ɔ	/jɔi/ 'having gone'	/læ/ 'is taking'	—	—	/dəu/ 'will give'

(ii) Three vowel clusters:

These are relatively rare and are four in number:

uie /suie/ 'may we sleep'

aie /khaie/ 'may we eat'

oie /joie/ 'may we see' (variant: oie)

əie /ləie/ 'may we take'

As can be observed, both two and three vowel clusters are basically verbal root forms ending in a specific vowel to which a verbal suffix beginning with a vowel has been added, thereby creating vowel clusters. Normally, these are pronounced as two (or three) separate syllables. However depending on the speech tempo, /i/ or /u/ can be replaced by a corresponding semi-vowel: /j/ and /w/, as in

/koi- koy/ 'some',	/beu-bew/ 'both'
/jɔi- joy/ 'having gone'	/suie-suye/ 'may we sleep'.

This process can also extend to words where vowels are not at morphological boundaries as in: /paisa-paysa/ 'money' /kailas-kaylaš/ 'Kailash mountain /bhəia-bhəya/ 'brother'. At times this free variation can result in confusion as in the cases below:

/ray/ 'king' vs. /rai-ray/ 'mustard';

/gaw/ 'cow' vs. /gau-gaw/ 'measure of distance'.

True contrasts between Vowel+Semi-vowel and Vowel+Vowel do exist as in:

/dwa/ -/dua/ 'two' – 'blessing. ',

/khədyā/- /khədjā/ 'ink-pots' – 'soiled',

/udjaw/ - /udjau/ 'fly (v.)' – 'spend-thrift'

The above morphophonemic variation modifies the description of the diphthong in Gujarati and although, within the writing system, two rising diphthongs are recognised: /ai/ and /əu/

as in /pəisa/, /kəilaʃ/ and in /kəumudi/, in practice, in rapid speech, the diphthongs tend to get reduced to clusters of /əy/ and /əw/.

1.4. Syllable Structure

The nucleus of the syllable is always a vowel or a diphthong. The consonants constitute the onset or the coda of the syllable.

Gujarati tends to favour the open syllable to the closed syllable.

1.4.1. Canonical Form

The canonical form of the Gujarati syllable is CCCVCCC. The following are the valid syllable clusters:

V	/a/ 'this'	CVC	/kan/ 'ear'
VC	/ap/ 'give'	CCVC	/pran/ 'life'
VCC	/ark/ 'essence'	CCCVC	/spirit/ 'ethyl alcohol'
VCCC	/əstr/ 'weapon'		
CV	/tu/ 'you'	CVCC	/vəstr/ 'cloth'
CCV	/pra-ni/ 'animal'	CCVCC	—
CCCV	/stri/ 'lady'	CCCVCC	—
CVCC	/rudr/ 'Rudra'	CVCCC	—
CCVCC	/prapt/ 'obtained'	CCVCCC	—
CCCVCC	/spruṣṭ/ 'clear'	CCCVCCC	—

The larger cluster groups are essentially from Sanskrit loan-words.

1.4.2. Syllable Division

If the word comprises a single vowel, all consonants either preceding or following are automatically part of the syllable.

The following are the rules of syllable division in Gujarati:

1. The initial consonant or consonants i.e. the consonants that mark the onset of the syllable are always attached to the following vowel: /ke/ 'that' /lo/ 'take'.
2. The final consonant or consonants i.e. the consonants that mark the coda of the syllable are always attached to the preceding vowel: /ark/ 'essence', /uṣṭr/ 'camel'.
3. In the case of medial consonants i.e. between two vowels within a word, the following rules apply. (It will be assumed that aspirates constitute one single consonantal unit).
 - **VCV:** A single consonant between two vowels is attached to the second vowel and constitutes its onset: /apo/: a - po, /ə - kho/
 - **VCCV:** If there are two consonants between two vowels, normally the first consonant is attached to the preceding vowel and the second to the vowel that follows: /kut-ro/ 'dog' /gidh-rū/ 'vulture'. However in case of clusters where the second consonant is /y/ or /d/, the consonants can be split between the two vowels or alternatively be attached to the second vowel: /phər-yo/ - / phə - ryo/ 'turned'.
 - **VCCC:** In the case of a tri-consonantal group, the third consonant is nearly always the semi-vowel /y/. The first consonant is attached to the preceding vowel and the next two to the vowel that follows as in: /nik-lyū/ 'came out', /vəs-trə-no/ 'of the clothes'

- **VCCCCV:** Sequences of four consonants between two vowels are exceedingly rare. The same rule as for tri-consonantal groups applies. Cardona (1965) notes: /sam-bhlyū/ 'heard' (For Cardona, the group 'bh' counts for two consonants).

1.5. Suprasegments:

Like a large number of Indo-Aryan languages (with the possible exception of Punjabi), Gujarati has no tone. Juncture, though present, is minimal. Stress, although predictable, exhibits extremely complicated patterns.

1.5.1 Juncture:

Juncture is phonemic in Gujarati but is a very marginal phenomenon and can occur across word boundaries or within the word boundary.

Cardona (1965) quoting Pandit (1958), gives an example of juncture across word boundaries: 'eklopayche' can be read as ek#lopay che 'one hides' or as eklo# pay che 'he drinks alone'.

Within word boundaries, juncture is more frequent as shown in the following instances:

'khajo':	khajo 'a sweet'	kha#jo 'do eat'.
'palo':	palo 'keep as a pet'	pa#lo 'take a quarter'
'baylo':	baylo 'coward'	bay#lo 'ladies, take'

1.5.2. Word-Stress:

Stress in Gujarati has been little explored and in what follows a minimal overview of stress will be provided. Stress always falls on the vowel.

- a. In monosyllabic units, stress will always fall on the vowel. áp; 'give' kár 'do'
- b. In disyllabic units, stress patterns are more complicated.

If both syllables share the same vowel, then the 1st is stressed: kákā, 'uncle' ghódo

If the two vowels are different, the following rules apply:

- If the second vowel is a vowel other than /a/, the first syllable is stressed, except if the first is an /ə/ in an open syllable, in which case the second is stressed.
cóljí 'blouse' rúci 'liking' but sáhu 'all' khéróc 'scratch'
- However if the /ə/ is the first vowel and is a closed syllable, it takes the stress:
jóldi 'quick' kátrō 'drop'
- If the second vowel is /a/, then the second syllable takes the stress:
cítá 'pyre' utjhád 'awaken, raise'
- If both vowels are /a/, the first vowel is favoured:
máta 'mother' kákā 'uncle'
- If both vowels are weak i.e. /ə/, then the first weak vowel is stressed: móraṇ 'death'. Some speakers tend to stress the vowels interchangeably.
- Notwithstanding the above, if the second syllable is part of a morpheme boundary and is a grammatical marker, the first syllable is stressed, even if it is a weak vowel:
bésō 'sit' lákho 'write'.
- c. In trisyllabic units, as a general rule, the last syllable is never stressed. This means that the first two syllables divide stress among themselves. The following rules apply:
As a general rule, the penultimate i.e. the second syllable is stressed. However the following exceptions apply:
Rule for /a/
- If the 1st syllable has an /a/, then it is stressed. láyəknō 'similar';
Rules for /ə/
- If the second syllable has an /ə/, it is the first which is stressed:

óṣədyo 'reduced';

-If the first and second syllable both have an /ə/, then the first is stressed:

jháṭəkto 'shaking out'

-However if the second syllable is closed, it is the second, which takes the stress :

bəkəlŷū 'small lamb'

Rules for /i/ are nearly similar to rules for /ə/:

- The first syllable is always stressed, if the second syllable is an /i/, provided that the first syllable does not have a weak /ə/

cálimo 'fortieth' but kahisú 'we will say'

- In case both the first and second syllables end in /i/, then they can be indifferently stressed: minítə or míniṭo 'minutes'

Four syllables and above are rare and in these cases, it is normally the second syllable which takes the stress.

Two final remarks regarding prefixes and suffixes will close the chapter on syllables:

- When the word is made up of a root word followed by a grammatical inflexion, either nominal or verbal, it is the root word which takes the stress, even if it has a weak vowel: kárjo '(please) do' ghóḍā 'horses'

Derivational prefixes and suffixes on the other hand, normally tend to take the stress:

práclit 'common' ḡeṇek : countless kərejdár

1.5.3. Intonation:

Like stress, the intonation of Gujarati has been very little studied. Only the basic intonative patterns will be described here. Gujarati has four voice contours:

1: low 2: mid 3: high 4: extra high.

The intonative curves of Gujarati fall within this range. There are four basic patterns:

3 – 1 / 2 : high - low/mid is a falling intonation and is used for affirmations and declarations.
kaka³ ave² che¹ Uncle is coming.

1 / 2 – 3: low/mid – high is a rising intonation and is used for interrogations.
kaka¹ ave² che³ Is Uncle coming?

4 – 1 extra-high – low is used for imperative sentences
kaka⁴ jəldi^{3,2} avo¹ Uncle, come quickly.

1 – 4 low – extra-high is used to mark surprise, astonishment.
kaka¹ ave^{2,3} che⁴ (What!) Uncle is coming!

Chapter 2 Writing System

The Gujarati script is a modification of the Devanagari script used in writing Sanskrit, Hindi, Marathi, Rajasthani, Nepali. But unlike the Devanagari derived script, Gujarati does not use a *shirorekha* which is a horizontal line drawn on top of the word, although old Gujarati manuscripts prior to the 19th century use the shirorekha. The earliest known document in the Gujarati script is a manuscript dating from 1592, and the script first appeared in print in a 1797 advertisement, using a metal typeface made in Calcutta. Until the 19th century, the Gujarati script was used mainly for writing letters and keeping accounts, while the Devanagari script was used for literature and academic writings. This is why it was often termed as *śāraphi* (banker's), *vāraqaši* (merchant's) or *mohajoni*.

The script is syllabic in nature and is written from left to right. Traditionally the script recognises 2 major divisions: vowels and consonants and a set of extra signs which are basically modifiers. The vowel graphemes represent their phonemic value. On the other hand the consonants represent a syllable consisting of the consonant followed by the inherent vowel /ə/. Thus the character ક is composed of the consonant /k/+ the inherent vowel /ə/. This inherent vowel is elided when the two consonants constitute a consonant cluster. This can also be explicitly indicated by means of a special character known as the *halanta* which is a stroke written at the foot of the vowel (cf. 2.2.1 infra).

2.1. Vowels

Vowel graphemes are 12 in number as shown in Table 5:

Table 5

/a/	/ə/	/i/	/ɪ/	/U/	/u/
ા	ા	િ	િ	ુ	ુ
/e/	/ɛ/	/o/	/ɔ/	/ai/	/əu/
ા	ા	ા	ા	ા	ા

Each of these vowels has a corresponding allograph which occurs when the vowel is adjuncted to a consonant to constitute a syllable made up of that consonant and the corresponding value of the vowel. These allographs are known as modified vowels or /mātrā/. With the exception of the /ə/ which is already inherent in the consonant, each of the vowels admits a corresponding mātrā form. It should be noted that the short /i/ mātrā is the only one always written to the left of the character.

Table 6 show the mātrās of each of the vowel forms, followed by an example:

Table 6

Vowel mātrā Example

/a/	ા: શા	kap	'cut'
/i/	િ: શિ	tir	'arrow'
/ɪ/	િ: શિ	lip	'spread'
/U/	ુ: શુ	gUp	'quiet'
/u/	ુ: શુ	pur	'flood'
/e/	ા: શા	ter	'13'
/ɛ/	ા: શા	bel	'bell'
/o/	ા: શા	bor	'jujube'
/ɔ/	ા: શા	bol	'ball'
/ai/	*: શાય	pəisa	'money'

Two vowels generally used in Sanskrit loan words **ru** and **Iru** will be studied in 2.3. below.

2.2. Consonants

Traditionally consonants are organised in *vārgās* or classes. The first five are the stops starting from the velars and ending with the bi-labials. Each set of stops is arranged in a five character matrix: unaspirated voiceless and voiced; aspirated voiceless and voiced followed by the corresponding nasal. The last set is made up of the semi-vowels, trills, laterals and fricatives.

Table 7

Velar Class	k g	kh g̚	g g̚	gh gh̚	ŋ ŋ̚
Palatal Class	c č	ch čh	j j̚	jh j̚h	n n̚
Retroflex	t ṭ	ṭh ṭṭh	d ḍ	ḍh ḍḍh	ṇ ṇ̚
	ṭ ṭṭ	ṭ ṭṭ	s s̚	š š̚	l̚ l̚
Dental Class	t ṭ	th ṭṭh	d ḍ	dh ḍḍh	n n̚
	ṭ ṭṭ	ṭ ṭṭ	ḍ ḍḍ	ḍh ḍḍh	ñ ñ̚
Bi-labial	p β	ph βh	b β	bh ββh	m m̚
	β ββ	β ββ	β̚ ββ̚	β̚ ββ̚	m̚ m̚
Others	y y̚	r r̚	l l̚	l̚ l̚	w w̚
	ṛ ṛ̚	ṛ ṛ̚	l̚ l̚	ṛ̚ ṛ̚	ṛ̚ ṛ̚
					h h̚

2.2.1. Consonant Ligatures

When two or more consonants form a consonant group, they are written with joined graphemes. The first consonant loses its inherent vowel and to show this loss, i.e. to show that the word has to be read without the inherent /ə/, the first consonant changes its shape and joins (in a large number of cases) to the second consonant.

Thus muśkil: मुश्किलः difficulty

The ɻ has lost its inherent vowel /ə/ and to show this absence, it is written not as ɻ but as ɻ̥ and joined to the consonant that follows.

When this process has to be shown explicitly, Gujarati uses a special sign called the halanta (literally 'joiner') /_/_ to show that the Consonant is a 'half' consonant and not a full one. The halanta is joined to the full consonant ક્ર and this implies that the consonant is a half form. The 'halanta' sign is very often used in children's primers or teaching methods to explain the concept of the half-form.

The derivation of the half forms from the full ones is rule-ordered:

-In the case of graphemes with a vertical stroke to the right, the stroke of the first consonant is omitted to create the so-called 'half-consonant'. These characters are:

kh g gh c p n q t th dh n p b bh m y l l s s s w
v o e e o o v c e t e r i o o o r u e o o o o o

-Rounded characters: In the case of rounded characters, no suppression of shape takes place. The space between the two characters is removed and the character is brought closer to the next consonant.

k ŋ ch j jh t th d dh d ph h

س س ا ۷ ۲ ۶ ۵ ۶ ۴ ۳

Note: **r** will be treated separately.

-Special conjunct forms:

Conjunct forms with vowels:

Combinations of /r/ with the vowel /u/ or /U/:

r+u: ↗ r+U ↗ or ↘

ȝ seems to be the form favored over ȝ. Alternative forms such as ȝ, ȝ encountered earlier (more because the printer had run out of the ligatural styles), are not in use today, either in hand-writing or in print.

Combinations of j with the vowels /a/ /ɪ/, /ʊ/, /U/

ja: ↗ jɪ: ↗ jU: ↗ ju: ↗

Conjunct forms with consonants:

- When two retroflex stops are combined, instead of being written together, they are normally stacked one on top of the other. The most common stacks are:
 શ ત્ત સત્ત ઓ 'gambling' ગ ઠ ઠ પઠ ઠ હો 'strong man'
 શ દ્ધ ગડ્ધો 'hole' શ દ્ધ બુદ્ધ હો 'old man'
- The consonant શ is normally rendered without its vertical line: શ. However when it is conjoined to /w/ or to /c/, it acquires a different allograph: શ.
 શ્વ એવ ઇશ્વર 'God' શ્ચ એચ આશ્વર્ય 'surprise'
 In combination with r, a single character is obtained: શ્ર as in શ્રી: શ્રી
 whose half form is: શ
- ક્ષ gives rise to a single shape: શ્ક્ષ એકશર: અશ્ક્ષરી word.
 Similarly ન્જ is reduced to a single shape શ્લ, as in ન્જનાન : શ્લનાન knowledge.
- શ, શ્લ are used mainly in Sanskrit loan-words. They also admit half-forms: શ્, શ
- દ admits four different variants depending on the following consonant:
 dm દ્લ padma પ્લ 'lotus' ddh દ્ધ buddhi બુદ્ધી 'wisdom'
 dd દ્દ muddo મુદ્દી 'condition' dy દ્ય વિદ્યા વીદ્યા 'knowledge'
- હ like દ admits variants in co-occurrence with consonants:
 hr હ્ર hm હ્મ
 hy હ્ય
- ન્ન can be written as નાં or નાં; but the latter is preferred: નનાં અનાં 'food'
- ત્ત can be similarly written with the half form or with a special shape: તાં તાં
 સત્તા 'power' સાત્તાં or સાત્તાં.
- ર/ટ has 3 different shapes:
 The first shape known as *reph* / ર/ is used in the combination of r+consonant. It is always put over the final consonant of the group. Thus
 રત્ત કર્તાવ્ય 'duty' or ર્ય કર્યા કાણ્ય 'mission'
- The next two shapes known as *rakar* as in 'ર' and 'ર્ય' are allographs of one another and are used to show the combination of a consonant + r.
 The first occurs only with characters written with a vertical line:
 પ્રાણ પ્રાણ 'life', ઓબ્રેખ અભેખ 'mica',
 The second is used with the retroflex lateral and retroflex stops.
 ત્રેણ ત્રેણ દ્રેઢમ દ્રેઢમ
- The combination /ત્ર/ is shown in present day Gujarati as : ત્ર
 જાટ્રા ત્રેણ 'name of a month'

2.3. Modifiers

These are specific signs used to modify the written Gujarati syllable.

- Nasalisation: /l/

Gujarati uses a sign known as *bindu* or *anuswar* to nasalise a vowel, mātrā or a consonant. It is written over the character in question:

bāndh: બાંધ એ ક્ષ અંદુઃ: number

In the case of combinations of velar nasal+velar stop or palatal nasal+palatal stop, the bindu is always preferred.

əŋjam અંજમ instead of અંજમ 'result'

ə əŋ અંગ instead of અંડા

The only exception encountered is:

vajməy 'literature' વાયમ્ય

In the case of Retroflex Nasal+Retroflex Stop/Nasal, Dental Nasal+Dental Stop/Nasal and Bilabial Nasal+Bilabial Stop/Nasal, both half forms and the bindu can be used, but the latter is preferred:

ənt 'end' અન્ત or અનંત

Umbar ઊંબર or ઊમંબર 'threshold'

Ummər ઊમર or ઊમર 'age'

- Visarga: //

The *visarga* sign is used in Gujarati to indicate the lengthening of the grapheme. Used mainly in words borrowed from Sanskrit, the *visarga* is seen in present day Gujarati only in three words:

du:kh 'unhappiness' and its derivates દુઃખ

du: sah 'unbearable' દુઃસાહ

du:sadhyə 'uncurable' દુઃસાધ્ય

- Avagraha: ૪

This sign is very rarely used in Gujarati and is mainly used to represent Sanskrit words as in:

સર્વતોભાવત્તું sərvətō bhāvət 'beloved of all'

- ru or ri is a conjunct form borrowed from Sanskrit. Basically a vowel, it has two shapes: The full vowel shape ॲ and the mātrā /./, ruši ॲશી 'hermit' krudənt ॲણ્ટ 'participle' With /d/ or /h/ it has a different shape:

društI ઢુષ્ટી 'vision' hruday ॲદ્ય 'heart'

Gujarati also admits a long form of this vowel, but it is used only in Sanskrit and not in Gujarati and is shown here only as a shape.

ॲ

The same is the case for the long and short lru forms which are in practice never used in Gujarati.

2.4. Writing rules:

When writing Consonants and Vowels, there are four main possibilities:

2.4.1 Vowel in Initial position or preceded by a vowel or a modified vowel (mātrā):

The consonant or the vowel that follow retain their full value:

િત: ઠે: brick khaie ખાઈએ : (we) will eat.

2.4.2. Mātrā followed by a Consonant or a Vowel:

The consonant or the vowel that follow retain their full value:

bharət :ભારેત 'India' bhai : ભૈર : brother

2.4.3. Consonant followed by a Vowel

When a Consonant is followed by a Vowel, under normal circumstances it loses its inherent vowel /ə/ and the vowel is written as a modified vowel or a mātrā. The whole combination is then treated as a single syllable.

kha+i+r= khir: ખીર porridge, gruel.

In the example above /kha/ has lost its inherent vowel /ə/ and has the new vowel /i/ which is itself reduced to a mātrā form is adjucted to it.

However it can so happen that the inherent vowel is retained and a vowel follows. In that case, Rule 2.4.1 (Vowel followed by Vowel) applies and the vowel that follows retains its full vowel value and constitutes a new syllable:

la+i lai: લાઈ: having taken. The Gujarati speaker pronounces the word as disyllabic: /la/ and /i/

The writing system thus correctly interprets the phenomenon of multiple vowel clusters treated in 1.3. above.

2.4.4. Consonant followed by a Consonant:

In this case also, two possibilities can arise. Either the first consonant retains its inherent /ə/, in which case the two consonants are written individually or the first consonant loses its inherent vowel, in which case, the two consonants form a ligature (cf. 2.2.1. above).

The following pair illustrates the problem. The two consonants /r/ and /m/ can be written as a ligatural form (rm) or as two individual consonants (rəm):

kərm vs. kərəm કર્મ vs. કર્મા: karma (deeds) vs worm

Remark:

The case of the modifiers, mainly the nasals has not been considered, because for all purposes, the nasal or any other modifier, for that matter, does not have any effect on the letter that follows.

Chapter 3 Morphology

Gujarati morphology comprises three major classes: the nominal class which includes Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives and Numerals; the verb class which treats of Verb morphology and the adjuncts class which comprises Adverbs, Post-Positions, Interjections, Particles which are generally invariable but which admit a marginal morphology.

3.1. Nominal Morphology

3.1.1 Nouns

In Gujarati, there are three genders : masculine, feminine and neuter and two numbers : Singular and Plural. Nouns admit three cases: direct, oblique and vocative. They are declined in relation to their gender class and the endings. The opposition animate-inanimate does not seem to have any pertinence within the system.

3.1.1.1 Gender:

Gujarati admits three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. In the case of animate nouns, sex roughly coincides with gender. There are no rules where inanimate nouns are concerned. Below are given some rules for predicting gender in Gujarati, especially in the case of inanimate nouns:

Masculine Nouns:

-Nouns in /o/ : tukđo: piece cōpđo 'book'

Exceptions: juo (F) 'gambling', mō (N) mouth,

- Days of the week, names of months : somwar, 'Monday' kartēk 'kartik' me 'May'

- Names of Mountains, Planets, Oceans, Seas: himalāy 'Himalaya' surōj 'Sun', guru 'Jupiter' pēsifik 'Pacific' Exception: dhērti: 'Earth'

- Large objects: pavđo 'spade' t̄rak 'truck'

- Reduplicative Nouns ending in at: khāt kh ātāt 'rattling' gōd gōdat 'rumbling'

- Passions: mad 'pride' mōtsar 'envy'

- Administrative divisions of a country: prant 'district' zillo 'district'

- Most common body organs: kan 'ear', hath 'hand' dāt 'tooth' pag 'foot'
Exceptions: ākh (F) 'eye' nak (N) 'nose'

- Most common cereals: tōl 'sesame', mōg 'moong' ghēū 'wheat'

Feminine Nouns:

- Nouns ending in /i/ and /a/: āgli 'finger' vīt̄i 'ring', aśa 'hope', dōsa 'condition'

Exceptions: māri 'pepper', bi 'seed', pañi 'water' ghi 'ghee' (all Neuter); hathi (M) 'elephant', devta (M) 'God'.

- Nouns end in /t/ or /s/, especially of Perso-Arabic origin: vat 'story', tōlas 'search'

- Nouns ending in /e/: relve 'railway', hōrđe 'medicinal curcuma'

- A majority of abstract nouns, especially those ending in /ta/, /ai/, /aś/, /girI/, /nI/, /vən/, /vət̄/:

mōmta 'love', mithāś 'sweetness', dadagirI 'bullying', gūcvən-gūcvət̄ 'complexity'

- Names of rivers , lunar days, main divisions of the day, nouns denoting points of the compass:

gōṅga 'Ganges' sabarmati 'Sabarmati'; bij 'second lunar day', rat 'night' sōvar 'morning', diśa 'direction',

Exceptions: brahməputra 'Brahmaputra sindhu 'Sindhu' pōđvo 'first lunar day'.

- Cereals and grains in everyday use: bajri 'bajra', tur 'a kind of lentil'

- Inanimate objects of small size (normally ending in -i): copđi 'book', rođli 'bread'
- Synonyms of the earth (normally ending in -i): dharti, bhumi, pruthvi
- Neuter Nouns:**
- Nouns ending in ū and in ñ : barñu 'door', ghərtū 'nest', vəhan 'ship'
Exception: ghāu 'wheat' (M)
- Abstract nouns ending in /ñ/, /ññ/, /tvə/: caləñ 'behaviour', dahyapəñu 'wisdom', sətva 'essence'
- Names of villages, districts and cities: surət 'Surat', pətən 'Patan'
- The four points of the compass: uttar 'North', purvə 'East'
- Names of fruits ending in a consonant or in /u/ : səphərəñ 'apple', kel 'banana', ənəñəs 'pineapple', limbu 'lime'
Exception: drakš (F) grapes
- A large number of objects denoting liquids: ghi 'ghee', tel 'oil' jəl 'water' dudh 'milk'
Exception: paro (M) 'mercury'

3.1.1.3. Number:

Gujarati admits two numbers: Singular and Plural. The table below shows the rules for converting a Singular noun into the Plural. In a majority of cases, the operation consists of adding a suffix which is indicated by a + sign. On the other hand, in some cases, the final vowel is replaced by another, which is shown by two forms: Singular and Plural. Forms marked rare are difficult to find.

Ending in:	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Inherent ə	o	o	o
i/I	bag+o 'garden'	vat+o 'story'	ghər+o houses unchanged
e	hathi+o 'elephant'	chokri+o 'girl'	panjı – 'water'
a	rare	unchanged	rare
		hərdə – 'curcuma'	
ə	o	o	rare
o	raja+o 'king'	kəla+o 'art'	
u/U	chokro-chokra 'boy'	gho– 'iguana'	unchanged
ü	ladu+o 'sweet ball'	sasu+o 'ma-in-law'	vara– 'wolf'
ö	rare	rare	ä barnū-barnā 'door'
			unchanged
			mō-face (pronounced also as mō)

- Abstract Nouns are generally in the Singular and do not admit any Plurals:
bhəlai, neki 'goodness', satta 'power'
- Mass Nouns indicating cereals are always in the Plural:
ghəñu 'wheat', məg 'moong', tel 'oil', cəñña 'gram', cokha 'rice', səmacar 'news', hal 'condition', ləgnə, vivah 'wedding', kəsəm, səgən 'oath', śekun 'good augur'
- The following nouns are always in the Singular, but when used in a distributive sense admit a Plural:

ghi 'ghee', khanđ, 'sugar', sakar 'sugar', mithai 'sweetmeat', goļ 'molasses', pari 'water', ca 'tea', kophi 'coffee', jirū, hing 'asafoetida', methi 'fenugreek', sukhəđ, 'sandal-wood', loban 'incense', əgnI 'fire', kəpas cotton', ru 'cotton', ghas 'grass', sonū 'gold', rupū 'silver'; surət 'face', sikkəl 'face', dəhəpəñ 'wisdom', niti 'good behaviour', Iccha 'wish', khərəc, 'expense', tħəndJ 'cold', gərmi 'heat'.

3.1.1.2 Declension:

Nouns are declined for three cases: direct, oblique and vocative. The oblique base in its turn combines nouns with case-markers or post-positions as shown below in the case of the paradigm for /chokro/: a boy:

Case	Noun	Case Marker/Postpositions
Nominative	chokro	—
Oblique		
Accusative	chokra	ne
Dative	chokra	ne,e,thi,vəde, nathi,kərine, thəki (rare)
Instrumental	chokra	ne, ne kaje, ərthe, mat̄e,vaste, thi
Ablative	chokra	thi, thaki
Genitive	chokra	no,ni,nū,na,nā, više
Locative	chokra	e,mā
Vocative	chokra	o

The direct or nominative case is the case in which the noun is either an agent i.e. the subject of the verb or a direct object.

The oblique case, on the other hand, requires the addition of a post-position.

The genitive case marker /-n-/ inflects for the number and gender of the noun it relates to.

The vocative case is normally used to call someone and is always preceded by words such as ore, o, etc.

(1. a) are chokrao: o boys!

(1. b) o chokri: you there, girl!

In the writing system, a majority of these postpositions are joined to the noun. Some can be present or absent:

(1. c) ghər ja 'go home' or ghəre ja 'go home'

Below are given in tabular form the paradigms of noun declensions for the three genders and two numbers:

Masculine	Ending in	Singular			Plural			
		N	O	V	N	O	V	
inherent ə	dev	dev	dev	dev	dev	+o	+o	'God'
i/I	moci	moci	moci	moci	moci	+o	+o	'cobbler'
e								
a	raja	raja	raja	raja	raja	+o	+o	'king'
o	chokr+o	+a	+a	chokr+a	chokr+a	+ao	+ao	'boy'
u/U	lađu	lađu	lađu	lađu	lađu	+o	+o	'sweet'

Feminine	Ending	Singular			Plural			
		N	O	V	N	O	V	
ə	vat	vat	vat	vat	vat	+o	+o	'story'

i/I	nokri	nokri	nokri	nokri	+o	+o	+o	'work'
e	hordje	'curcuma'						
a	cita	cita	cita	cita	+o	+o	+o	'pyre'
o	gho	'iguana'						
w/U	sasu	sasu	sasu	sasu	+o	+o	+o	'ma-in-law'

Neuter Ending	Singular			Plural				
	N	O	V	N	O	V		
ə	jəŋgəl	jəŋgəl	jəŋgəl	jəŋgəl	+o	+o	+o	'jungle'
i/I	pani	pani	pani	pani	pani	pani	pani	'water'
e	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
a	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
o	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
w/U	vəru	vəru	vəru	vəru	+o	+o	+o	'wolf'
ū	chokrū	chokra	chokra	chokr	+ā	+āo	+āo	'kid'
ɔ	mō	mō	mō	mō	mō	mō	mō	'face'

Remarks:

All masculine nouns ending in /o/ change into /a/ except in the nominative Singular and all neuters in /ū/ change into /a/ in all cases only in the Singular, except the nominative Singular and /a/ in the Plural, before they take the Plural and case endings. In all other cases i.e. nouns ending in /o/ (F. and N.), a (M. and N.) /a/, /i/, /u/ (M. and N.) and u (N.) undergo no change before they take the case endings or Plural and case endings.

3.1.2. Adjectives

Adjectives in Gujarati are of various kinds. This section deals with adjectives as qualifiers, since the other adjectives such as possessive, indefinite etc. are common to the pronoun and will be treated in 3.1.4 below.

Adjectives as qualifiers are of two kinds: variable and invariable. Only adjectives ending in /o/ whose feminine and neuter forms can be made by changing /o/ to /i/ and /ū/ are variable. All the others are invariable and undergo no change when a case-ending is added.

Thus saro 'good' which admits sari and sarū is variable, whereas adjectives like saph 'clean', lobhi 'greedy', lal 'red', dukhi 'unhappy' are all invariable : dukhi (nom.) dukhine (acc.) The forms of the variable adjective are given in the paradigm below:

Singular		
M	F	N
Direct Oblique	Direct Oblique	Direct Oblique
saro	sara	sari
Plural		
M	F	N
Direct Oblique	Direct Oblique	Direct Oblique
sara	sara	sari
sara	sara	sarā

Adjectives as qualifiers can have an epithetic as well as attributive value. The epithetic adjective precedes the noun, whereas the attributive adjective follows the noun and is conjoined to it by means of a copular construction.

(2.) saro chokro: a good boy chokro saro che: the boy is good.

When a variable adjective stands in an epithetic relation to an invariable noun, only the adjective varies:

(2. a) sara maŋəs 'good men'.

In case the noun is variable, both the adjective and the noun are declined:

(2. b) sari chokri 'good girls'

(2. c) gorā chokrā 'fair children'

3.1.2.2. Comparision

The comparative degree is formed by adding thi 'from' or kərtā 'than' to the noun or pronoun followed by the adjective which agrees in number and gender with the object of comparision:

(3. a) hū vivekthi saro chū

I Vivek from good am

I am better than Vivek.

(3. b) chagən kərtā məgən budhivan che

Chagan than Magan clever is

Chagan is cleverer than Magan.

Superlatives are formed by adding a word signifying 'of all' 'from all' to the adjective. The most common superlative markers are /səu/ and /sərvə/ with the appropriate declension: səuthi, sərvathi, saumā, sərvəmā, sərvəkərtā, saukərtā:

(3. c) hū saumā moṭo chū

I all+in old be+prest.

I am the oldest.

(3. d) rəmən səuthi dəhyo che

raman all+from clever be+prest.

Raman is the cleverest.

3.1.3. Numerals:

Basically numerals belong to the class of adjectives. Numerals can be divided into five classes:

1. cardinals
2. ordinals
3. multiplicatives
4. fractions
5. aggregatives.

3.1.3.1. Cardinals:

Cardinals are numeral quantifiers used for counting. They are invariable in nature and do not undergo any change either in number, gender or declension. Gujarati speakers vary over the pronunciation and spelling of numbers. The most common ones for numbers 1-100 are given below:

1	ek	8	aṭh / anṭh	15	pəndər
2	be/be	9	nəw	16	sol / sol
3	tən̄/trən̄	10	dəs	17	səttər
4	car	11	əgyar	18	ədhar
5	pəŋe	12	bar	19	ogəris
6	čha	13	ter	20	wis
7	sat	14	cəwd	21	ekwis

22 bawis	68 aðsət̪h
23 trewis	69 ogənsitter
24 cəwɪs	70 sitter
25 pacchis	71 ekoter
26 chəwwis	72 boter
27 səttawis	73 troter
28 ət̪thawis	74 cummoter
29 ogəntris	75 pəccoter
30 tris	76 choter
31 ek(a)tris	77 sittoter
32 batris	78 it̪thoter
33 tetris/tretris	79 ogənayənsi
34 cətris	80 ənsi
35 pantris	81 ekyasi/ekyansi
36 chətris	82 byansi
37 sadətris	83 triansi
38 adətris	84 coryasi
39 ogəncalis	85 pəcyansi
40 calis	86 chyansi
41 ektalis	87 sityansi
42 betalis	88 it̪hyansi
43 tetalis	89 nəwyansi
44 cummalis	90 newū
45 pistalis	91 ekañū
46 chatalis	92 bañū
47 suðtalis	93 trañū
48 aðtalis	94 cərañū
49 ogənpəcas	95 pancañū
50 pacas	96 chəñū
51 ekawən	97 sət̪tañū
52 bawən	98 ət̪tharñū
53 trepon	99 nəwwarñū
54 cəpon	100 so
55 pəngcawən	
56 chappən	
57 səttawən	
58 ət̪thawən	
59 ogənsət̪h	
60 sat̪h	
61 eksət̪h	
62 basət̪h	
63 tresət̪h	
64 cəsət̪h	
65 pansət̪h	
66 chasət̪h	
67 sad(o)sət̪h	

Multiples of 100 consist of the base number so preceded by the cardinal number in question:

300 trən so, 400 car so. 200 is written as bəso.

Additions to 100 are simple juxtapositions of so followed by the cardinal number:

101 : ek so ek , 709 sat so nəv.

1,000 is rendered by hajar, 100,000 by lakh, kəroq and əbəj designate 10 million and 100 million respectively.

The basic rules for multiplicands and additions are the same as for 100, except that 2 is rendered by /be/ and not /ba/ : 200,000 be lakh.

3.1.3.2. Ordinals:

Ordinals are used to show rank or ordering. They are generated from cardinals by suffixation of mü to the base form. The first four numbers are irregular and so is the sixth:

1st pəhelü ,

2nd bijü,

3rd trijü,

4th coithü,

6th chət̪thü.

All other numbers are regular: 5th: pajemü, 9th: nəvmü etc.

These behave exactly like adjectives ending in -ü. They vary in number, gender and case. The regular base form is mo- which undergoes change as under:

mü: neuter nom. Sg.;

mo: Masc. nom. Sg. ; ma: Masc. oblique Sg./Pl.

mă: neuter. nom. and obl. pl; mi: Fem. Sg. and Pl.;

(4. a) 9th boy: nəvmo chocro, 9th boys: nəvma chocrao, to the 9th boy: nəvma chocraue

(4. b) 9th girl: nəvmi chocri, 9th girls: nəvmi chocrio, to the 9th girl(s): nəvmi chocri(o)ne

(4. c) 9th dog: nəvmü kutrū, 9th dogs: nəvmā kutrā, to the 9th dogs: nəvmā kutrāone

3.1.3.3. Multiplicatives:

The most common multiplicatives are formed by the addition of gəñū to the base form from five upwards: chəgəñū, satgəñū etc. Multiplicatives of 2 to 4 admit the following forms:

bəməñū: two-fold

trəməñū: three-fold

cəgəñū: four-fold

gəñū (and also məñū) are often joined to the number or can be written separately and behave exactly like the ordinal suffix -mo

gəñ+ü; gəñ+a; gəñ+ ā, gəñ+i

cargəñū : fourfold

(5.) cargəñathi maro faydo na thay

fourfold+Inst. my+Nom. profit not happen+prest.

Fourfold is not profitable for me.

gənū can also be added to fractions as in:
pagənū.: a quarter times.

Slightly archaic forms, still encountered are bevdū and trevdū: twice and thrice.

3.1.3.4. Fractions:

Gujarati has the following fractional forms:

¼ : pa, ½ : ərdhū, ¾: pənū, 1 ¼: səva, 1 ½: dodh, 2 ½: ədhi.

Of these, the forms ending in /-ū/ are declined, exactly like the ordinal forms. The other forms remain unchanged.

(6. a) ərdho kilo bhaji: half a kilo of vegetables.
half+Masc. kilo+Masc. vegetables

(6. b) pa kilo bhaji: a quarter kilo of vegetables.
quarter+Masc. kilo+Masc. vegetables

Gujarati also admits two other forms used for indicating additions of a quarter and a half, mainly for telling the time:

səva: 'a quarter past' and sadja 'half past' as in

(7. a) səva car: 4.15,

(7. b) sadja car: 4.30

1.30 and 2.30 are indicated by dodh and ədhi respectively.

(7. c) dodh vagya: It is 2.30

1 ½ ring+PastPart.

dodh and ədhi are also used to indicate additions to a certain amount.

(7. d) ədhi lakh: one and a half lakh (100,000).

3.1.3.5. Aggregatives and Distributives:

With the exception of 2 and 3, all other aggregatives are created by adding the suffix 'o' to the cardinal:

nəvo: all nine.

sato: all seven.

2 and 3 are rendered as bənne 'all two'; tənne or tənqe 'all three'.

Distributives are created by simple reduplication:

car car 'four each'

chə chə 'six each'

sat sat. 'seven each'

Normally distributives do not go beyond ten.

Gujarati also has special aggregative forms such as ekko, duro, tijo/tiggo, coggo, pənjo, chəgggo, sətto, ət̪t̪ho used mainly in games such as cards, dice or cricket. These admit only masculine and feminine forms:

coggo: 'a boundary in cricket' cəggi: 'a four in cards'
chəgggo: 'a sixer in cricket' chəggi: 'a six in cards'

3.1.4. Pronouns

The boundary line between a large number of adjectives and pronouns is extremely tenuous. Those that precede a noun are adjectives, whereas those that replace the noun are pronouns: te chokro avyo: that boy came. te avyo: (that) he came.

Gujarati admits six pronoun classes: personal, demonstrative, reflexive, interrogative, relative and indefinite. All pronouns admit an oblique case, but no vocative forms. In terms of their behaviour, pronouns are of three types:

- those that admit only case;
- those that allow for both case and gender;
- those ending in -o or at times -ū, which are declined for case, gender and number like variable adjectives.

3.1.4.1 Personal Pronouns:

Personal pronouns are declined for Number and Case and it is only in the genitive case that they admit gender.

The following table gives the various forms of the personal forms:

	1 st Per. Sg.	1 st Per. Pl. excl.	1 st Per. Pl. incl.
--	--------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------------

Nom.	hū	əme	apən
Acc.	məne,mare	əmne, əmare	apənne
Inst.	mē, mare	əmne, əmare	apənne
Dat.	məne, mare	əmne, əmare	apənne
Abl.	marathi	əmarathi	apənθi
Gen.	maro	əmaro	apənno
Loc.	maramā	əmaramā	apənamā

	2 nd Per. Sg.	2 nd Per. Pl.	2 nd Pers. Honorific
--	--------------------------	--------------------------	---------------------------------

Nom.	tu	təme,tamo	ap
Acc.	təne,tare	təmne, təmare	apne
Inst.	tē, tare	təmne, təmare	ape
Dat.	təne, tare	təmne, təmare	apne
Abl.	tarathi	təmarathi	apthi
Gen.	taro	təmaro	apno
Loc.	taramā	təmaramā	apmā

	3 rd Per. Sg.	3 rd Per. Pl.
--	--------------------------	--------------------------

Nom.	te	teo
Acc.	tene	teone,temne
Inst.	tənə	teoe, temne
Dat.	tene	teone,temne
Abl.	tenathi	teothi,teonathi
Gen.	teno	teono,temno
Loc.	temā	teomā,temnamā

Remarks:

(i) ap is used as a second person respect form, instead of using the təme form:

(8. a) ap kyā jao cho instead of təme kyā jao cho: 'Where are you going ?'

(ii) Similarly the third person Plural form /teo/ or /tem/ can be used in the Singular as a mark of respect when the speaker wants to show respect for a person who is absent.

(8. b) hū temne	məlyo	chū
I him+respect	meet+past	be+prest.
I have met him.		

(iii) The 1st and 2nd Person Singular forms of the Instrumentals end in ē (mē and tē) which in the 3rd person is replaced by eŋe. This alternation between ē and ŋe is a systematic feature of pronoun morphology cf. 3.1.4.3. Demonstrative and 3.1.4.5. Relative Pronouns.

(iv) Gujarati admits an exclusive and an inclusive first person Plural:

əme (the addressee is excluded) whereas apəŋ/apŋe (the addressee is included) as in:

əme sinema gəya 'We (but not you: excluding the addressee) went to the cinema'.

apŋe sinema gəya 'We (and you: including the addressee) went to the cinema'

The genitive endings in -o can be further declined as adjectives ending in -o and admit the forms: i-ū-a-ā used with the different forms of the noun.

(8. c) marū	chokrū: my child
my+neut.	child+neut.

(8. d) mari	chokri: my girl (daughter)
my+Fem.	girl+Fem.

(8. e) maro	chokro: my boy
my+Masc.	boy+Masc.

3.1.4.2. Reflexive Pronouns:

Reflexive Pronouns are declined only for case. The genitive ending in -o, undergoes a further declension for number and gender. The base form of the reflexive pronoun is *pot-* to which are added the declensions of the cases as well as the postpositional endings, as the paradigm shows:

Nom.: pote

Acc. : potane

Inst. : pote

Dat. : potane

Abl. : potathi, potanathi

Gen. : potano

Loc. : potamā

(9.) e	pote awyo
	he self come+past
	he came himself.

3.1.4.3. Demonstrative Pronouns :

Demonstrative Pronouns are declined for number and case with the genitive ending in -o undergoing a further declension as in the case of other pronouns. Depending on the nature of determination, there are two main types of deixis:

- Determinate i.e. reference to a determined category

- Indeterminate i.e. reference to a category which is not well defined, in other words ' an indefinite person or object'.

Determinate deixis is of three kinds:

Proximate a Indicate an object which is near and visible to the speaker.

Medio e Indicate an object which is slightly distant and visible.

Remote te Indicate an object which is remote to the speaker.

Indeterminate deixis admits two sub-types:

Proximate pelo Indicate an object which is near and visible to the speaker.

Remote olo, olyo Indicate an object which is remote to the speaker.

The first category comprises three markers which admit the same type of declension. Hence only one paradigm will be developed, the endings being separated from the base form by -.

Replacing /e/ by /a/ and /te/ generates out the other endings.

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	e	eo
Acc.	e-ne	eo, eo-ne
Inst.	e-ŋe	eo-ŋe, em-ŋe
Dat.	e-ne	eo-ne, em-ne
Abl.	e-nathi	eo-thi, eo-nathi, em-nathi
Gen.	e-no	eo-no, em-no
Loc.	e-mā	eo-mā, eo-namā, em-namā

In the Plural form em- is used for animate, whereas eo- designates non-animates.

'pelo' and 'olo/olyo' are -o enders and behave like all words ending in -o and undergo change in number, gender and case and admit the forms: -i -ū -a -ā.

3.1.4.4. Interrogative Pronouns:

Gujarati has three interrogative pronouns which correspond to the English 'who', 'what' and 'which': kən (who or whom), sho (what) and kəyo (which). With the exception of kən, the other two are declined in gender, number and case, since they behave like variable adjectives ending in -o. The paradigm is described in the table below:

	Singular		Plural	
	Direct	Oblique	Direct	Oblique
Masc.	sho	sha	sha	sha
	kəyo	kəya	kəya	kəya
Fem.	shi	shi	shi	shi
	kəyi	kəyi	kəyi	kəyi
Neut.	shū	sha	shā	shā
	kəyū	kəya	kəyā	kəyā

kən (who, whom) is declined for case only, except in its genitive form which ends in -o (in which case the ending is declined for number and gender). Since it has a variant kən, the various forms are given in the table below:

Nom.: kōṇ
 Acc.: kōṇ,kone
 Inst.: kōṇe, kon(e)thi
 Dat. : kōṇne, kōne
 Abl.: kōṇthi, kōnathi
 Gen.: kōṇno, kono
 Loc. :kōṇmā, kōnamā

(9. a) kōṇ avyo: 'who came ?'
who come+past

(9. b) kōṇe phal khadha: 'who ate the fruits ?'
who fruit+pl. eat+past

(9. c) kōṇe a kam kōryū: 'who did this work ?'
who this work do+past

3.1.4.5. Relative Pronouns:

These are declined for case only. Gujarati has two relative pronouns: *je* and *te*. The paradigm for both is the same and hence only one is given below, with the postpositions separated from the base form by a -. The other can be obtained by replacing /j/ by /t/.

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	je	jeo
Acc.	je-ne	jeo, jeo-ne
Inst.	je-ṇe	jeo-ṇe, jem-ṇe
Dat.	je-ne	jeo-ne, jem-ne
Abl.	je-nathi	jeo-thi, jeo-nathi, jem-nathi
Gen.	je-no	jeo-no, jem-no
Loc.	je-mā	jeo-mā, jeo-namā, jem-namā

It will be seen that the paradigm for relative pronouns is declined in exactly the same manner as that for Demonstrative Pronouns.

je and *te* are often used together as in:

(10. a) je kare te bhāre
who do+Prest. he pay+Prest.
He who does (harm) pays (for it).

je is pleonastic and can often be omitted. The sentence above could also be written as:

(10. b) kare te bhāre.

3.1.4.6. Indefinite Pronouns:

The most common indefinite pronouns in Gujarati are *koi* and *kōī* and their derivates. *koi* (someone) is used for animate and *kōī* (something) for inanimate. These are invariable and undergo no change when postpositions are added onto them.

By the addition of prefixes and suffixes, a variety of indefinite pronouns are generated:

je	jekoi	jekōī:	whoever, whichever
hōr	harkoi	harkōī:	each one, each thing (distributive).
ek	koiek	kōīk or kōīek:	anyone, anything

(11. a) mōṇe jekoi ap
me+dat which+ever give.
give me whichever.

(11. b) a vat harkoi jaṇe che
this story every+one know+pres. be+pres.
every one knows this story.

Two other indefinite pronouns: *phalaṇū* (such and such) and *kāṣū* (some) are declined for number and gender like all adjectives ending in -o' after which postpositions are added.

(12. a) phəlano chokro 'such and such a boy.'

(12. b) kāṣū kam 'some work.'

Learning pronouns and their declensions and forms is a problem for native speakers also. The following table tries to sum up synoptically the pronoun types:

Type	Gender	Number	Case
1. Personal not in -o Genitive in -o	-	+	+
2. Reflexive not in -o Genitive in -o	+	+	+
3. Demonstrative not in -o Genitive in -o	-	+	+
4. Interrogative not in -o Genitive in -o	-	+	+
5. Relative	-	-	+
6. Indefinite not in -o Genitive in -o	-	-	+
	+	+	+

- indicates absence of the feature + indicates presence.

3.1.5. Nominalisers:

A large number of nouns can be formed or derived by the addition of suffixes. Prefixation in Gujarati does not create class-changing categories and hence is not a feature of nominalisation. Some suffixes are Persian in origin, whereas the others belong to Gujarati.

Agentive suffix:

Noun Base

-gar	kam+gar 'work→workman'
-o	rəsoi+o 'cookery→cook'
-i	adhikar+i 'right→official'
-kar	citrə+kar 'art→artist'

-var	umed+var 'hope→candidate'
-ar	kumbh+ar 'pot→potter'
-ri	puja+ri 'worship→priest'
-ək	rəkša+ək=rəkš ək 'guard →guardian'
-van	himmat+van 'courage→courageous one'
-valo-i-a-ū	ghər+valo 'house→house owner, ghər+vali 'house →house owner (Fem.) pūch+ valū 'tail→having a tail.'

Verb Base:

-nar	ləkh+nar 'write→writer'
-iyo	bədəd+iyo 'chatter→chatterbox'
-au	khərc+au 'spend→spendthrift'
-ti	gən+ti (gənti) 'count'

Abstract suffixes

Noun Base :

-ətva	das+ətva 'slave→slavery'
-i	cor+i 'thief→theft'
-girl	dada+girl 'bully→bullying'

Adjective Base

-ai	cətər+ai 'wise→wisdom'
-aś	nərm+ aś 'soft→softness'
-ən	nic+ ən 'mean→meanness'
-pən	bał+pən 'child→childhood'
-ta	nəmrə+ta 'gentle→gentleness'
-ali	khuś+ali 'happy→happiness'

Verb Base

-ən	jəm+ ən 'eat→eating'
-ŋi	śiv+ŋi 'sew→stitching'
-ai	ləkh+ai 'write→writing'
-ət	gədgəd+ət 'rumble→rumbling'
-ət	rəm+ ət 'play→play'
-rən	jag+ rən 'wake→awakening'
-mən	sikha+ mən 'learn→lesson'

Honorific (always with a noun base)

-ji	kaka+ji uncle→'respected uncle'
-behn	urmi+behn 'Urmi→sister Urmi'
-saheb	mətə+a+saheb 'sir→respected Sir'
-bhai	məgn+ +bhai 'Magan→ brother Magan'

Locative (always with a noun base)

-pur	anand+pur 'Anandpur'
-alay	pustak+a ləy 'book →bookshop'

-abad	ahməd+abad 'Ahmedabad'
-kər	purē+kər 'Pune→'Puneite'
-khanū	dawa+khanū 'medicine→ dispensary'

Diminutives (always with a noun base)

-dʒi	gam+dʒi 'village→small village'
-i	thal+i→ 'small dish'
-dū	gam+dū 'village→small village'
-lū	pag+lū→'small foot'

Statives (indicating a state)

Noun Base:	
-gət	parsi+gət 'parsi→being a parsi'
-ək	thəndj+ək 'cold→coldness'
-po	budha+po 'old→old age'
-giri	gulam+giri 'slave→slavery'

Verb Base

-tar	bhən+tar=bhəntar 'pray→prayer'
------	--------------------------------

Adjective Base

-gi	mādo+gi=mādgi 'ill→illness'
-----	-----------------------------

Occupational Suffixes (always with a noun base)

-aro	rəng+aro 'colour→dyer'
-maru	məchchi+maru 'fish→fisherman'
-ari	rəng+ari 'colour→dyer' (Fem)
-ar	kumbh+ar 'pot→potter'
-valo-i-a-u	dudh+ valo 'milk→milkman' dudh+vali 'milk→milkmaid'

Feminine Suffixes (always with a noun base)

Only the main suffixes are given here:	
-əni	shet h+ ənI 'master→mistress'
-dʒi	cakar+dʒi 'servant→ servant'
-ən	vagh+ ən 'tiger→tigress'
-i	dev+i 'God→Goddess'

Resultative (Indicates a result from a verb base)

ən	mājvū+ ən=mājən 'clean vessels→cleaning of vessels'
bhəjvū+ ən=bhəjən	'pray→hymn'

Gujarati has a set of suffixes that indicate large and small size:

-o - i	hādə - hādi 'big pot – small pot'
-ū - i	anglū - anglī 'finger (big) – finger (small)'
-ū - o	tədjkū - tədko 'sun's heat – sun's heat (degrees)'

3.2. Verbs

3.2.0. Verb Profile

Gujarati verbs exhibit a rich and complex morphology. The base form of the verb ends in /vū/ and by stripping this suffix, the root form to which flexional suffixes are added, is arrived at. Thus /ləkhvū/ is composed of two morphs: /ləkh-/: the root and the infinitive marker /-vū/.

Verb morphology can be best visualised in terms of a complex hierarchy.

The top-most layer is composed of semantic classes i.e. the three major types of verbs: Active, Causal, Passive. The last two are derived from the Active form by adjuncting specific suffixes and what basically applies in terms of flexion classes to the Active Verb also applies to the other two classes. To these can be added a minor category of Impersonal verbs.

The next layer is that of transitivity and intransitivity. Active verbs admit both classes as do Causals with certain restraints. Passives by their very nature do not admit intransitivity since they demand a direct object.

The final layer is that of inflectional morphology which is a complex bundle of Tense-Mood and Aspect. Gujarati admits three tenses: Present, Past and Future; six major moods: Infinitive, Indicative, Imperative, Participle, Conditional and Inceptive. And two aspects: the Continuous and the Perfective. These combinations yields a large number of simple and complex verbal forms which will be described in 3.2.2 below.

The mechanism of the various verb classes is quite regular and easy to grasp in spite of its richness.

- Firstly there are the simple verb forms where the verb is inflected for the Present, Past and Future forms in all numbers and genders.

- The complex forms are based on two major parameters: the participles and the auxiliaries. The participles provide the base form of the verb to which are adjuncted the auxiliary endings to create a large number of modal and aspectual forms. Participles function like variable adjectives and admit the same morphology. Three main participle classes enter into the verb morphology: The Past Participle, The Present Participle and the Remote Past Participle.

The Past Participle is generated out by the addition of a base suffix /y/ to which are added the gender and number suffixes: -a, -i, -ū, -ā. (Through sandhi the combination of /y+i/ yields /i/). Thus the base form /ləkh/ to write admits the following:

	Singular	Plural
M	ləkhyo	ləkhyā
F	ləkhi	ləkhi
N	ləkhyū	ləkhyā

The Present Participle has /t/ as the base suffix to which are added the gender and number suffixes: a, i, ū, ā, giving forms such as ləkhto, ləkhti, ləkhtā, ləkhtū etc, all of which mean 'writing'.

	Singular	Plural
M	ləkhto	ləkhta
F	ləkhti	ləkhti
N	ləkhtū	ləkhtā

The Remote Past Participle has /el/ has the base suffix to which are adjuncted the gender and number suffixes to give forms such as ləkhelo, ləkheli, ləkhelā etc, all of which imply the notion of total completion of the action.

	Singular	Plural
M	ləkhelo	ləkhela

F	ləkheli	ləkheli	'finished writing'
N	ləkhelū	ləkhelā	'finished writing'

The Auxiliary verbs which in turn modify the participles are two in number: che: to be (a defective verb) and hovū: to become. These can be inflected for tense, number and person. Gender is not marked.

/che/ which is used to mark the continuous aspect is used only in its present form:

	Sg.	Pl.
	M/F/N	M/F/N
1	chū	'am'
2	che	'is'
3	che	'is'

/hovū/ is used to introduce the Perfective and Imperfective forms in all tenses: present, future and past.

Present: base form: ho

	Sg.	Pl.
	M/F/N	M/F/N
1	hoū	hoie
2	hoy	ho
3	hoy	hoy

Future: base forms: ho-hə

	Sg.	Pl.
	M/F/N	M/F/N
1	hoiś	hoiśū
2	həse	həso
3	həse	həse

The Past tense is inflected only for Number and Gender. To the base form /hə/ of /hovū/ is adjuncted the Past marker /t/ to which are added on gender and number suffixes: a, i, ū, ā.

	Singular	Plural
	M	F
1	hətō	həta
2	həti	həti
3	hətū	hətā

The combination of participles and auxiliary forms yields complex verb patterns such as:

(13. a) e kərto hoy : he may be doing. e kərto hətō: he was doing.

(13. b) hū kərū chū: I may be doing. e kerto həse: he will be doing.

These will be described below:

3.2.1. Active Verb Forms: These are described in terms of the basic moods:

3.2.1.1. The Infinitive Mood is marked by the morph /vū/ which is added onto the root of the verb, as in doqvū: 'to run'; calvū: to walk; väcvū: to read.

The form can function as a gerund and can be used as a noun.

If the verb is intransitive, only the neuter Singular base form is used:

(14. a) rate	jəvū	kətərmak	che:
	night+obl.	go+inf. dangerous	is

going by night is dangerous.

If the verb is transitive, then the infinitive is declined like the noun. It admits the endings: vo, vi, va, vā and can become the subject of a sentence.

(14. b) halvo khavo (M.S.): 'eating halva.'
halwa (attribute) eat+past

(14. c) copđi vācvi (F.S.): 'reading a book.'
book (attribute) read+past

(14. d) bor khava (M.Pl.): 'eating jujube fruits.'
jujube (attribute) eat+past

(14. e) parja phadvā (N.Pl.): 'tearing pages.'
pages (attribute) tear+past

3.2.1.2. The Indicative Mood

This mood is used to indicate or assert an action in time. It admits of a large number of forms which are given below:

3.2.1.2.1. Simple Forms:

These are forms of the verb inflected simply for tense. The action can be situated either in the Present, the Future or the Past. In the table below are given the inflexions for each type with the verb /pəd/ to fall :

1. Present

	Sg.	Pl.
M/F/N	M/F/N	
1	pədū 'fall'	pədje 'fall'
2	pəde 'fall'	pədø 'fall'
3	pədē 'falls'	pədē 'fall'

The Simple Present form is used mainly for asking permission.

(15. a) hū chhapo vācū: May I read the newspaper.
I newspaper read+pres+1st Pl.

2. Future

	Sg.	Pl.
M/F/N	M/F/N	
1	pədjś	pədjśū 'will fall'
2	pədše	pədšo 'will fall'
3	pədše	pədše 'will fall'

The future indicates an action to be accomplished in the future:

(15. b) sambhal kər, tu padśe:
care do+imp., you fall+fut.+2 Sg.
Take care, you will fall.

3. Past

The Past tense (of all Gujarati verbs) behaves exactly like the Past Participle and is inflected only for Number and Gender.

	Singular	Plural
1	pədyo 'fell'	1 pədyā 'fell'
2	pədži 'fell'	2 pədži 'fell'
3	pədžū 'fell'	3 pədžā 'fell'

Concord in the past tense depends on whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive. In the case of Transitive verbs, the verb agrees with the object, whereas with Intransitive verbs which admit only a subject, there is Subject-Verb concord.

(15. c) məgən avyo
magan come+past+3rd Sg. (Intransitive hence Concord with Subject)
Magan came.

(15. d) usae phal khadhū¹
Usha+Obl.+Fem. fruit+Obj.+Neuter eat+past+Neuter
Usha ate the fruit.

3.2.1.2.2. Complex Forms:

Complex forms are derived by the combination of the auxiliaries with the verb forms or the participles and add aspect to the verb. The Past Participles and the Remote Past Participles function like adjectives and agree in number and gender with the subject of an intransitive verb. The Present Participle on the other hand functions like an ordinary verb and agrees in person, number and gender with the subject of a Transitive or Intransitive verb.

(i) Forms with che

- Present Continuous: Present of Verb+Present of auxiliary che

M/F/N Sg.	M/F/N Pl.
1 pədū chū 'I am falling'	pədje chie 'We are falling'
2 pəde che 'You are falling'	pədø cho 'You are falling'
3 pədē che 'He/she/it is falling'	pədē che 'They are falling'

-Present Perfect: Past Participle of the Verb+ Present of auxiliary che

This form is obtained by adding to the past participle of the verb, the present tense forms of the verb /che/.

This tense, like all tenses derived from past participles has two forms. If the verb is intransitive, the past participle as well as the verb agree in number and gender with the subject. With transitive verbs the concord is with the object of the sentence and the auxiliary verb remains unchanged.

(16. a) hū pədyo chū:
I +subj. fall+PastPart.+1st+Sg. che+pres+1stS.
I have fallen.

(16. b) e'ne phal ucakyū che:
he+subj. fruit+Neut. lift+PastPart.+Neuter che+pres.

He has lifted the fruit.

(ii). Forms with hovū

This auxiliary combines with different participles to generate out the following verbal aspects:

- Continuous Aspect:

The continuous form is a combination of the Present Participle along with the verb hovū in the appropriate tense. Both the Present Participle and the auxiliary verb agree in number and gender with the subject. Three forms are generated: Past, Future and Presumptive Continuous.

Past Continuous: Present Participle + hovū in the Past tense

(16. c) **hū** **pəd^tto** **hətō**
I +subj. fall+Prest.Part.+Masc. hovū+past+1st Sg.
I was falling.

(16. d) **e** **cəpdjɪ** **vācto** **hətō**
he+subj. book+Fem. read+Prest.Part.+Masc. hovū+past+1st Sg.
He was reading the book.

Future Continuous: Present Participle + hovū in the Future tense

(16. e) **hū** **pəd^to** **hoiś**
I +subj.+Masc. fall+PastPart+Masc. hovū+fut.+1st Sg.
I will be falling.

(16. f) **e** **cəpdjɪ** **vācto** **haſc**
he+subj. book+Fem. read+Prest.Part.+Masc. hovū+past+1st Sg.
He will be reading the book.

Presumptive Continuous: Present Participle + hovū in the Present tense

This tense adds a notion of probability of possibility to the verb. It is possible that the action may be in the state of being accomplished:

(16. g) **e** **pəd^ti** **hoy**: She may be falling.
she +subj. fall+Prest.Part.+Fem. hovū+past+3rd Sg.

(16. h) **e** **cəpdjɪ** **vācti** **hoy**
she+subj. book+Fem. read+Prest.Part.+Masc. hovū+past+3rd Sg.
She may be reading the book.

- Perfective Aspect:

The verb in this aspect shows that the action has been duly completed. All perfectives are made up of a combination of the Past Participle along with the verb hovū in the appropriate tense. The Past Participle agrees in number and gender with the object of the Transitive verb and in the case of the Intransitive verb concords with the subject. As with the continuous, three forms can be generated:

Past Perfect: Past Participle+Past of hovū

(16. i) **hū** **pəd^yo** **hətō**
I +subj. fall+PastPart+1st Sg. hovū+past+1st Sg.
I had fallen.

(16. j) **e'ne** **phəl** **ucəkyū** **hətū**
he+subj. fruit+Neuter lift+PastPart+neuter hovū+prest.+neuter
He had lifted the fruit.

Future Perfect: Past Participle + Future of hovū

(16. k) **hū** **gəyo** **hoiś**
I +subj. go+PastPart+1st Sg. hovū+past+1st Sg.
I will have gone.

(16. l) **e'ne** **cəpdjɪ** **vāci** **haſe**
he+subj. book+Fem. read+PastPart+Fem hovū+past+1st Sg.
He will have read the book.

Presumptive Perfect: Past Participle+Present of hovū

(16. m) **e** **pəd^ji** **hoy**
she +subj. fall+Prest.Part.+Fem. hovū+past+3rd Sg.
She may be falling.

(16. n) **e'ne** **cəpdjɪ** **vāci** **hoy**
he+subj. book+Fem. read+Prest.Part.+Masc. hovū+past+3rd Sg.
He may be reading the book.

- Habitual aspect

In addition to the above complex forms, a last set of verbal forms in the indicative mood can be derived by the combination of the two auxiliaries : hovū and che. This yields the simple and complex habituals, which mark an action that is a habit.

The simple habitual is generated out by the present tense of the verb hovū followed by the auxiliary che, as in:

(16. o) **məgən dərroj** **bar** **vage** **ghəre** **hoy** **che**
Magan everyday twelve o'clock home+obl. hovū+prest. be+prest.
Everyday Magan is home at twelve.

The complex habitual has the past participle as the base verb form followed by hoy che.

(16. p) **məgən dərroj** **bar** **vage** **jəmto** **hoy** **che**
Magan everyday twelve o'clock eat+PastPart. hovū+prest. be+prest.
Everyday Magan lunches at twelve.

3.2.1.3. Imperative Mood

Gujarati recognises two imperative forms: the neutral and the future. Both forms are used for requests, orders as well as invoking curses and blessings:

The neutral imperative has two forms: 2nd Person Singular and Plural. The Singular form is nothing else but the base form of the root, whereas the Plural ends in /o/.

(17. a) **ləkh**: write.

(17. b) **ləkho**: write. (Plural)

(17. c) **bəs**: sit.

(17. d) **bəso**: sit. (Plural)

(17. e) *kha*: eat.
(17. f) *khao*: eat. (Plural).

(17. g) *cal*: walk.
(17. h) *calo*: walk. (Plural)

The future imperative is marked by the endings /je/ and /jo/.

(17. i) *kale lakhje*:
tomorrow write+fut. imp.+2nd Sg.
write tomorrow.

(17. j) *mene maljo*
me+acc. meet+2nd Pl.
meet me.

In the form of blessings or imprecations, the form is used only in the 2nd person Plural.

(17. k) *tarū s̄atyanas th̄ejo*:
your destruction happen+imp. Pl.
Curse you! (May you be destroyed)

(17. l) *tarū bh̄elū th̄ejo*:
your good happen+imp. Pl.
Bless you! (May good happen to you)

3.2.1.4. Conditional Mood

Conditionals are used in Gujarati with conditional markers: /jo/ - /to/: 'If ... then'. The first adverb is omitted by a large number of speakers; The inflexional form of the conditional is invariable: /te/. Some speakers of Gujarati also use /ət/, in which case the /ə/ is elided before a root form ending in a vowel.

(18. a) *jo tu awat to e kam k̄orat*
If you come+cond. then he work do+cond.
If you come (came), he will (would) work.

(18. b) *jo tu a khat, to mādqona that*.
if you this eat+cond. then ill not happen+cond.
If you eat (ate) this, you will (would) not fall ill.

The conditional admits three forms:

The simple or present conditional is created by the adjunction of /te/ or /ət/ to the root of the verb:

(18. c) *hū loṭərimā jitət to maldar that*:
I lottery+dat. win+cond. then rich become+cond.
If I win the lottery, I'd be rich.

Very often the future is used instead of the conditional to mark the same content:

(18. d) *hū loṭərimā jitiś to maldar thaīś*:

The past conditional uses the past participle+conditional of the verb *hovū*: **hot**.

(18. e) *tu awyo hot, to s̄ū k̄aryū hot*,
you come+PastPart. hovū+cond. then what do+PastPart hovū+ cond.
If you had come, what would you have done ?

The continuous conditional deploys the Present Participle+conditional of the verb *hovū*.

(18. f) *tu s̄efär k̄erto hot, to s̄ū k̄erat*,
you travel do+Prest.Part. hovū+ cond. then what do+ cond.
If you had been travelling, what would you have done ?

Normally the last two forms are avoided and only the first form of the simple conditional is used.

3.2.1.5. Inceptive Mood. This mood is used to show the commencement of an action. The Past Participle of the verb /th̄evū/ 'to happen' is used as an inceptive marker.

(18. g) *e kam k̄arto th̄eyo che*:
he work do+PastPart happen+PastPart be+prest.+ 3rd Sg.
he has started doing the work.

The use of /hovū/ in the past and future forms creates the Past Inceptive and the Future Inceptive.

(18. h) *e kam k̄arto th̄eyo h̄oto*
he work do+PastPart happen+PastPart become+past +3rd Sg.
he had started doing the work.

(18. i) *e kam k̄arto th̄eyo h̄aśe*
he work do+PastPart happen+PastPart become+future +3rd Sg.
he will have started doing the work.

3.2.1.6. Participles:

Gujarati recognises 7 participial forms. With the exception of the connective participle, all behave morphologically as adjectives and admit the endings:

	Sing	Plural
Masc.	o	a
Fem.	i	i
Neut.	ü	ä

The participle agrees in number and gender with the noun it qualifies:

(19. a) *suto chokro*:
sleep+Prest.Part.+Masc. boy+Masc.
sleeping boy.

(19. b) *sutū kutrū*
sleep+Pres.Part.+Neut. pup+neuter.
sleeping pup.

(i) Present Participle:

The base morph of this participle is /t/ to which are collocated the markers of gender and number as in the examples given above.

suto - suta - suti - sutū - sutā

(ii) Past Participle:

The base morph of this participle is /y/ to which are added on the markers for gender and number:

pədyo - pədy-a - pədʒi - pədʒyū - pədʒyā: fallen

The neuter form is often used as a noun:

(19. c) mahṛū kəhyū man: Believe what I say.
My+neuter say+PastPart. believe+Imp.+2nd Sg.

The Present and Past participle act as a base for the complex verb forms of the infinitive mood (see 3.2.1.2.2. above).

(iii) Future Participle:

This form is marked by the ending –van- to which are adjuncted the markers of gender and number:

pədʒvano - pədʒvana - pədʒvani - pədʒvanū - pədʒvanā: falling (in the future)

Like the past participle, it is often used as a noun.

(19. d) tahrū awvanū muškil che
your come+fut.part. difficult be+prest.+3rd Sg.
It will be difficult for you to come.

(iv) Remote Past Participle

This form admits –el- as its marker to which are added the appropriate gender and number markers:

ləkhelo - ləkhela -ləkheli - ləkhelū - ləkhelā: completely written.

This form often acts as a compleutive and marks an action as totally complete. These participle forms are therefore often used as adjectives:

(19. e) ləkhelā paṇā: written pages

Used with the auxiliaries che and hovū, the remote past participle is the base for a compleutive aspect.

(19. f) e'ne ləkhelū che: he has finished writing.
he+dat. write+Rem.PastPart be+prest.+3rd Sg.

(19. g) e'ne ləkhelū hətū: he had finished writing.
he+dat. write+Rem.PastPart become+past+3rd Sg.

(19. h) e'ne ləkhelū həše: he will have finished writing.
he+dat. write+Rem.PastPart become+fut.+3rd Sg.

(v) Future Agentive Participle:

This participle has –nar- as its base with the usual and gender markers suffixed.

ləkhnaro - ləkhnara -ləkhnari - ləkhnarū - ləkhnarā

Like other participles, it is used commonly as an agentive noun, especially with the genitive case marker:

(19. i) ləkhnaranū nam sū:
write+agent.part.+Masc. Sg.+genitive name what
What is the name of the writer?

At times, the form replaces the Future Participle as in :

(19. j) kən kən jəmṛar
who who dine+ agent.part.
who will dine ?

(vi) Future Imperative Participle:

This is the same as the Gerundial Infinitive and has been treated under that head. (3.2.1.1).

(vii) Connective Participle:

The connective participle, unlike the other participles, has only one form: -i or -ine. It is so called because it is used to connect two sentences. /-i/ is used for short sentences, whereas /-ine/ is used for longer ones:

(19. k) jəmṛən kəri hū bəhar gəyo
food do+conn.part. I out go+past +1st Sg.
After dining, I went out.

(19. l) mənmā ver rakhine tu maro mir thəyo che
mind+in revenge keep+conn.part. you my+Masc. friend happen+PastPart be
You have become my friend with revenge in your heart.

3.2.2. Verb Variations

Gujarati verbs like their Hindi or Urdu counterparts are relatively regular and exhibit few variations. These variations are of two types: phonologically conditioned which are predictable in terms of sandhi rules and morphologically conditioned which are not rule governed.

3.2.2.1. Sandhi conditioned variations.

These affect mainly the inflexions of the verbal roots that end in vowels and are followed by a morph beginning with a vowel. Morphological changes occur at these intervocalic boundaries:

- Roots ending in a followed by the vowel e, convert the e to a glide y.
e kha+e → khay 'he/she eats'
This change affects active, passive as well as causal verbs ending in /a/:
kha, kəra, pədʒa
- (20. a) uṣa ābo khay che
Usha mango eat+Prest.Part. be+3rd Sg.
Usha is eating a mango
- Roots ending in /i/ followed by an /i/, reduce the combination of two /ii/'s to a single /i/
kha+i→khai but pi+i→pi
(20. b) ābo khai, paṇi pi, e ghare gəyi
mango eat+conn.part., water drink+ conn.part., she house+loc. go+past.
After eating the mango and drinking water, she went home.
- Roots ending in e or ε as in the case of the verb ləvū: to take
roots ending in e/ε followed by the inflectional ending /e/, drop the /e/ ending and
maintain the root form: e/ε+e → e/ε
de+e→ de
(20. c) a pustək de

this book+nom. give+imp.+2nd Sg.
give this book.

roots ending in /e/ followed by the inflectional ending /o/, the root ending is dropped and the /o/ is maintained: e/ε+o → o

le+o→lo

(20. d) a pustək lo: take this book.
this book+nom. take+imp.+2nd respect

roots ending in /e/ followed by the inflectional ending /i/, the root is reduced to the neutral vowel: e/ε+i → əi

le+i→ləi

- roots ending in /o/ such as dhovū: to wash, jɔvū: to see

When the root is followed by the verbal inflexion /e/ or /o/, the root vowel changes to /u/
dho+o→dhuo 'wash' (imperative), dho+e → dhue 'washes 3rd Sg.Prest'

jɔ+o→juo 'see' (imperative), jɔ+e→jue 'sees, 3rd Sg. Prest'

(20. e) nəlin kəpðə dhue che
Nalin clothes+Pl. wash+Prest.Part. be
Nalin is washing the clothes.

The only exception to this sandhi are the verbs /hovū/: 'to become' and /kohvū/: 'to rot'.

ho+e→hoy 'becomes, 3rd Sg. Prest.'

ho+o→hovo 'becomes, 2nd Pl. Prest.'

koho+e→kohy 'rots, 3rd Sg. Prest.'

koho+o→kohvo 'rots, 2nd Pl. Prest

3.2.2.1. Morphologically conditioned variations.

These affect mainly the past participle and remote past participle forms:

- pes, 'to get in' bes 'to sit', nas 'to flee' yield the base forms:

pət̪h, bət̪h, nət̪h

Past Participle Remote Past Participle

pət̪ho 'got in' pət̪helo 'had got in'

bət̪ho, 'sat' bət̪helo, 'had sat'

nət̪ho 'fled' nət̪helo 'had fled'.

(20. f) cor ghərmā pət̪ho
thief house+in get in+PastPart.
the thief got in the house.

- kha 'to eat' and pi 'to drink' yield the base forms:

khad-, pid-

Past Participle Remote Past Participle

khadho 'ate' khadhelo 'had eaten'
pidho 'drank' pidhelo 'had drunk'

(20. g) mistrie sigret pidhi
Mistry+obl. cigarette drink+PastPart.
Mistry smoked a cigarette.

- le 'to take', de 'to give', kər 'to do' and bih 'to fear' yield the base forms:
lidh-, didh-, kidh- bidh-
from which are generated the Past and Remote Past Participles:

Past Participle	Remote Past Participle
lidho 'took'	lidhelo 'had taken'
didho 'gave'	didhelo 'had given'
kidho 'did'	kidhelo 'had done'
bidho 'feared'	bidhelo 'had feared'

(20. h) e'ne ma'ro səməy lidho
he+dat. my+Masc. time take+PastPart.+Masc
he took my time

(20. i) məgəne ma'ri cəpðj i lidheli həti
magan+obl. my+Fem. book+Fem. remote PastPart. become+past+Fem.
Magan had taken my book.

The verb kər also admits the regular forms: kəryo and kərelo.

(20. j) məgəne kam kəryū/kidhū
magan+obl. work do+PastPart.
Magan did the work.

-mər 'to die' has the base form mu-
muo 'died' muelo or mərelo 'had died'

(20. k) mərelo səp
die+ PastPart. snake
a dead snake.

The Verbs 'jəvū' to go and thəvū' to become admit two roots forms /jə/, /thə/ and /ja/, tha/. Whereas the forms in /a/ are the norm, the /a/ form dominates in the following:
Simple Present:

jaū : 'I go',
jay 'you go/he,she,it goes.
thaū : 'I become',
thay 'you become /he,she,it becomes.

Present and Imperative:

jao: '(you respect.) go',
thao '(you respect.) become'

Imperative:

ja: 'go (2nd Sg.)'
tha 'become (2nd Sg.)'

Conditional:

jat 'would go'
that 'would become'

In addition the Past Participle (as well as the simple Past) and Remote Past Participle forms of ja have the base form: gay.

gøyø 'went'
gøyelo 'had gone'

These, like all forms ending in -o, function exactly like variable adjectives:

gøyø, gøya, gøyi, gøyā: went.
gøyelo, gøyela, gøyeli, gøyelā: had gone.

3.2.3. Causative Verb forms:

A form is termed causative when the subject causes another agent to perform an action.

Gujarati admits two types of causals: a primary causal and a secondary causal.

3.2.3.1. Primary Causals:

In this type of causal the Primary Agent A causes another Agent A1 to perform the action on his behalf.

The normal order is as under:

1st agent+nom. 2nd agent+ni pase object verb in the passive

The 1st agent who is the true subject is in the nominative, followed by the active or second agent who really performs the action. This second agent is invariably followed by the marker ni+pase (through). Next comes the object and finally the verb which is in the passive. The verb agrees in number and gender with the first agent. However in the past forms, the verb agrees with the object.

(21. a) hū kam kərū chū: I do the work.
I work do+pres. be+pres.

(21. b) 1st Agt. 2nd Agt. pase object Causal verb
hū eni pase kam kəravū chū
I him+dat. through work do+caus+pres. 1st. Sg. be+pres.
I get the work done by him.

(21. c) 1st Agt. 2nd Agt. pase object Causal verb
chagəne məgənni pase kam kəravyū
chagan+obl. magan+dat. through work do+caus.+past
Chagan got the work done by Magan.

Primary causals are derived from the verb base by the adjunction of the causative morph followed by the tense markers. The main causal suffix is -aw-. Other causal suffixes, less frequent are -daw-, -ad-, -ed-. Roots ending in a final vowel or -h occur with a glide /w/ before the suffixes, as in le, kha, pi below.

-aw type: kar→kəraw 'do', lakh→lakhaw 'write', suk→sukaw 'dry',
tək→təkaw 'last', muk→mukaw 'put', bol→bolaw 'say'

-daw type: le→ləwdaw 'take' kha→khəwdaw 'eat', pi→piwdaw

-ad type: dekh→dekhad 'see/show', siv→siwad 'sew'

-ed type: khəs→khəsed 'shift'

Since there are no fixed rules for the choice of the right causal suffix, causals are normally lexical items and are listed in the dictionary as such.

In the process of the creation of causals, certain verbs undergo a morphophonemic change.

Three distinct changes can be categorised:

(i) Change of vowel: The stem vowel undergoes a change:

ə becomes a:
pəd→pad 'to fall'
utər→utar 'to descend'
sukəw→sukaw 'to dry'
vəl→val 'to bend'
sudhər→sudhar 'to improve'
mər→mar 'to die / kill'

ə becomes e:
uchəd→uched 'to jump up'
ukəl→ukeł 'to boil'

u becomes o
khul→khol 'to open'

(ii) Change in consonant stem:
phət→phad 'to tear'

(iii) Change in the vowel stem as well as in the final consonant:
chut→chod 'to loosen'
tut→tod 'to break'

3.2.3.2. Secondary Causals:

In this type of causal, the Primary Agent A causes another Agent A1 to perform the action on his behalf. She/He, in turn, demands a third agent A2 (tertiary agent) to complete the work on his behalf.

(21. e) lilae kam kidhū:
lila+obl. work do+past
Lila did the work.

(21. f) lilae chəgənni pase kam kərawyū (Primary Causal)
lila+obl. chagan+dat. by work do+causal+past
Lila got the work done from Chagan.

(21. g) lilae chəgənni pase kam kərawdəwyū (Secondary Causal)
lila+obl. chagan+dat. by work do+causal2+past
Lila got Chagan to get the work done.

The secondary causal is basically derived from the primary causal as under:
If the first causal ends in -aw-, the second is derived by adding -daw- to it.
kar→kəraw→kərawdaw causals of the verb 'to do'

(21. h) chokra pase kam kərawdaw
boy+obl. through object 2nd causal+imp. 2nd Sg.
Get the work done by the boy.

If the first causal ends in -d, only -aw- is suffixed to it. This is the case with ad_d and ed_d.

khas→khəsəd→ khəsədaw causals of the verb 'to shift'

dekh→dekhəd→ dekhədaw causals of the verb 'to see/show'

(21. i) a lekh prəviŋ pase dekhədaw
this article Pravin+obl. through 2nd causal+imp. 2nd Sg.
Get Pravin to show this article.

If the first causal does not end in -aw-, -daw-, -ad_d, -ed_d, as is the case with stem alterations

(cf. 3.2.1.1. (i) –(iii)), only -aw- is added to the 1st causative stem:

uchəd→uchəd→ uchedaw causals of the verb 'to jump up'

chut→chot→ chodaw causals of the verb 'to loosen'

(21. j) gäth chodaw
knot (object) 2nd causal+imp. 2nd Sg.
get the knot undone.

In some cases both -aw- and -awdaw are used in free variation:

sudhər→sudhar→ sudhraw or sudhrawdaw causals of the verb 'to improve'

(21. k) lila pase a lekh sudhraw/sudhrawdaw
lila+obl. through this+Masc. article improve+imp. 2nd Sg.
Get Lila to improve this article.

Secondary causals are more used in literary texts than in colloquial speech.

A third form of the causal which could be termed as a tertiary causal was used in earlier literary Gujarati, but is not in use anymore. The tertiary causal involves three agents. The subject asks Agent 1 to accomplish an Action (Primary causal) who in turn asks Agent 2 (secondary causal) and who asks a third agent (Tertiary causal) who in turn gets the work done by a fourth agent.

Thus to extend the examples given in 3.23.2.:

(21. 1.1.) lilae kam kidhū
Lila did the work.

(21. 1.2) lilae chəgənni pase kam kərawyū (Primary Causal)
Lila got the work done from Chagan.

(21. 1.3) lilae chəgənni pase kam kərawdawyū (Secondary causal)
Lila got Chagan to get the work done by another agent.

(21. 1.4) lilae chəgənni pase kam kərawdawrawyū (Tertiary causal)
Lila got Chagan to get the work done done by another agent.

This form is produced by the addition of the suffix -raw- to the derived form of the second causal and followed by the tense markers.

3.2.4. Passive Verb forms:

The passive in Gujarati is formed by adding -a- to the root form of the verb and which is subsequently followed by its tense information.

root kər+a-: do

(22. a) hū kam kərū chū
I work do+pres. be+pres.
I do the work.

(22. b) marathi kam kəray che
I+Inst. work do+pass.+Prest.Part. be
The work is done by me.

Although the passive formation is a regular process in Gujarati, a few verbs undergo a morpho-phonemic change:

- When the root verb admits an /a/, the /a/ becomes /ə/
ap→əpa 'give' kap→kəpa 'cut' jan→jəna 'know'
wapər→wəpra 'use' katər→kətra 'cut'
This rule does not apply to causatives ending in /-a/

- When the root verb ends in a vowel or /h/, a glide /w/ is inserted between the vowel and the passive marker:
kha→khəwa 'eat' pi→piwa 'drink' dho→dhəwa 'wash'
ga→gəwa 'Sg.' nah→nəhwə 'bath/bathe' bih→bihwa 'fear/frighten'

In the structuring of the sentence, the word order does not necessarily change. But the subject of the active sentence takes the ending -thi as the instrumental marker. Concord takes place with the object of the active sentence.

(22. c) e'ne git gayū
he+acc. song Sg.+past+Masc.
he sang a song.

(22. d) enathi a git gəvayū
he+Inst. this song+neuter Sg.+pass.+past+neuter
a song was sung by him.

Passives are little used in Gujarati. Under the influence of English, the use of passives is noticed in official texts, newspapers as well as in academic books:

(22. e.1)sərkarhi hit mate a paglā upadya gəya che
government+Inst. progress for this+Pl. step+Pl. lift+PastPart go+pass. be+pres.
These steps have been taken by the Government for progress.
(Mumbai Samachar. 22 June 2002)

It would have been more correct to use the active form:

(22. e.2) sərkare hit mate a paglā upadya che
government+obl. progress for this+Pl. step+Pl. lift+PastPart be+pres.
The Government has taken these steps for progress.

In normal spoken Gujarati such structures are avoided. The passive in Gujarati, if at all used, indicates ability or capacity to undertake an action. This explains why even intransitive verbs can be passivised to indicate capability or incapability on the part of the agent.

(22. f) marathi n̄hi ḥavaśe

I+Inst. not come+pass.+future
I will not be able to come.

(22. g) mohān̄thi j̄avaśe

Mohan+Inst. go+pass.+future
Mohan will be able to go.

3.2.5. Impersonal Verb Forms

These constitute a small minority of verbs. They admit no overt agent and are always used in the neuter gender. The meaning of the verb is regarded as the agent itself. The verb is normally in the 3rd person.

These verbs belong to two semantic categories:

- sensorial verbs dealing with unpleasant sensations in the body such as:

du:khvū: to pain

kāl̄vū: to ache

vāl̄vāl̄vū: said of pain moving around in the body (lit: to wriggle)

These normally admit a noun declined in the locative case to situate the sensation in a specific part of the body.

(23. a) pēt̄mā du:khe che
stomach+loc. pain+3rd Sg.+prest. be+prest.
My stomach hurts.

- cognitive verbs with the meaning of like:

bhawvū, phawvū, ḡomvū: to like

These generally occur with the indirect object.

(23. b) t̄amne ḡome che ke ?
you+obl. like+3rd Sg.prest. be+prest. is it?
do you like it ?

To these two categories can be added two more verbs: awād̄vū: to know, joivū: to want.

(23. c) lilañe guj̄arati awād̄e che
lila+ obl. Gujarati know+3rd Sg.prest. be+prest.
Lila knows Gujarati.

3.2.6. Modal Auxiliaries

3.2.6.1. Modal Auxiliaries:

Modal Auxiliaries or Explicator verbs (Gusain, 2001) are verbal elements that are adjuncted to a verb root and which induce modifications in the process indicated by the verb.

(24. a) a j̄had̄ vād̄htū jay che
this tree increase+PastPart. go+prest.+3rd Sg. be+prest.
this tree keeps on growing.

The verbal form /jay/ added to the main verb which is in the perfective form, introduces the notion of progression.

The 'colour' imparted by the modal auxiliary to a verb, depends on the form of the verb. The verb roots are normally in the participial forms and depending on the participial form, the same modal auxiliary can change in meaning.

Thus if one compares the example above with;

(24. b) a bhān̄j ja
this learn+connect.part. go+imp.+2nd prest.
first of all learn this.

the difference is apparent. In the first case 'ja' introduces the idea of continuity or progression, whereas in the second, it is more the immediacy of action which is preempted. There exists a close relationship between the modal and the tense of the root verb which is normally a participial form.

The most common modal auxiliaries are:

ja, 'go', cuk 'fail', rāh 'remain', nakh 'throw', kād̄h 'to take out', pād̄ 'fall', pād̄ 'cause to fall', uṭ̄h 'rise', de 'give', śāk 'to be able', le 'take', ap 'give', aw 'come', jo 'see' lag 'begin' manq̄ 'commence'

Of these, the most frequent are ja, aw, rāh, le, de, ap, nakh. The others are less frequently used.

The table below shows the nature of the relation between the root verb and the modal auxiliary:

Root Verb	Morph	Modal	Nature of 'colour'
Present Participle	-t-	ja, aw, rāh	temporal
Past Participle	-y-	kār, lag	compulsion
Gerundal Infinitive	-a -i -ū, -ā	de, lag, manq̄ pād̄, joi	permission, progression obligation
Connective Participle	-i-	all modals	-

3.2.6.2 With the Present Participle

The Present Participle denotes the idea of continuity or duration. The three modal verbs, which incidentally are verbs denoting 'location in space', when adjuncted to this form, specify temporal deixis.

ja which in space, implies the notion of moving away from the point of reference, introduces the idea of continuity in an activity designated by the main verb and its progression into the future.

(24. c) e ləkhto ḡayo
he write+Prest.Part. go+past
he kept on writing.

aw which in the space continuum, marks movement towards a point of reference, introduces the idea of duration of the activity from a given period of time in the past to the present point.

(24. d) kəri thəti awi
curry be+Prest.Part. come+past
the curry was cooking.

rəh which marks stasis in space, shows that the action is smoothly progressing, without any interruption in the time continuum.

(24. e) tu ləkhto rəhe
you write+Prest.Part. stay+pres.
keep on writing.

3.2.6.3 With the Past Participle

The past participle shows an activity which is completed per se. Modal verbs which can modify this notion of a completed activity, therefore specify the nature of conditions under which this activity has been performed.

kər marks an activity which was completed in spite of the opposition of a person other than the agent.

(24. f) e to bolya kare che
he emphasis speak+PastPart. do+pres. be+pres.
he keeps on talking. (Implied: in spite of my wishing the contrary)

It also can mark the helplessness of the speaker before a situation which cannot be changed as in the expression:

(24. g) am to thəya kare che
this emphasis be+past do+pres. be+pres.
that's how things are! (Implied: they cannot be changed)

3.2.6.4 With the Gerundial Infinitive:

The Gerundial infinitive: The infinitive is inflected like an adjective and hence acquires the value of a noun. As in the case of the Past Participle, this form describes a state and the modal auxiliaries modify the state in two different manners:

de introduces the idea of permission. The speaker requests the addressee to let another agent do the activity, with the pre-implied assumption that the addressee is against the idea.

(24. h) ehne rəmwa de
he+dat. play+gerund give+imp.
let him play. (Implied: addressee is against the idea)

(24. i) səpne mar na, jəwa de
snake+dat. kill not, go+gerund give+imp.
do not kill the snake, let him go.

lag and **maŋd** introduce the idea of showing the progression of the state.

lag is generally used with intransitive constructions, whereas **maŋd** can be used with both transitive and intransitive gerundial forms. In the case of intransitive forms, the verb in question is normally a verb which is involuntary in nature.

(24. j) e rədʒwa lagyo
he cry+gerund begin+past
he began to cry. (Intransitive verb: rədʒwū : to cry)

(24. k) e khawa maŋdyo
he eat+gerund begin+past
he began to eat. (Transitive verb: to eat).

(24. l) paŋi təpəkwa lagyū
water start+gerund begin+past
the water started to drip (Intransitive+Involuntary)

pəd is used only with the base form of the infinitive: -wū. It introduces the idea of the action being performed under compulsion:

(24. m) chəganne jəvū pədʒe
chagan+dat. go+gerund fall+fut.
Chagan will have to go.

joi also marks an obligation, but which is moral in nature.

(24. n) chəgane jəvū joie
chagan go+gerund want+fut.
Chagan should go.

As can be observed, with **pəd-** (intransitive), the noun-subject is in the dative form, with **joi-** (transitive), the noun is in the accusative.

3.2.6.5 With the connective participle:

A large number of modal auxiliaries can enter into constructions with the connective participle and this is the most frequent case of usage. The most common modal auxiliaries used are:

ja, aw, de, nakh, šok .

Not so frequent are the modals: pad, uṭh, cuk, kadž, jo.

The nature of shades of meaning is complex and varied. The main meaning changes will alone be described below:

ja and cuk both show an action that is completed. However the focus on the nature of completion varies.

ja shows an action that is completed and adds to it a notion of definiteness:

(24. o) e məri gəyo
he die+conn.part. go+past
He died: paraphrase: It is sure that he died.

cuk also implies completion but without the guarantee or definiteness added. The focus is more on not failing in the task.

(24. p) e ləkhi cukyo
he write+conn.part. fail+past
He finished writing. (Here cukyo has the meaning of 'did not fail to')

rəhe also denotes a completed action but the stress here is on the state of its continuity at a given moment in time.

(24. q) e kam kəri rəheyo
he work do+conn.part. stay
He finished working.

nakh 'throw', **uṭh** 'to rise', **kaḍh** 'to take out', **pəd** 'fall', **pad** 'cause to fall', show the suddenness of action. The focus is on the immediacy of the action itself. This immediacy is coloured in different manners:

nakh means get over with it at all costs.

(24. r) a kam kəri nakh
this work do+conn.part. throw
Get this work over with.

uṭh on the other hand implies a sudden performance of activity. It is normally used in collocation with verbs denoting vocal activity.

(24. s) e gai uthyo: he burst out singing.
he Sg.+conn.part. rise+past

(24. t) e boli uthyo: he burst out in speech.
he speak+conn.part. rise+past

kaḍh implies the completion of an action after a certain amount of effort:

(24. u) ləkhi kaḍh: write it out.
(24. v) śodhi kaḍh: hunt it out.

pəd and its causal **pad** are also used to denote a sudden action. **pəd** is normally used with verbs denoting either movement in space: **aw** or verbs indicating human emotions:

(24. w) e awi pədyo
he come+ conn.part. fall+past
he came suddenly (unexpectedly).

(24. x) e rəḍi pədyo
he cry+ conn.part. fall+past
he burst out crying.

(24. y) e hənsi pədyo
he cry+conn.part. fall+past
he burst out laughing.

pad implies the notion of immediate physical activity

(24. z) jhali pad
seize+ conn.part. fall+imp.
seize him at once.

śek shows the ability to perform an action:

(24. A) e ləkhi śəkyo
he write+conn.part. able+past
he could write.

(24. B) e cali śəkyo
he walk+conn.part. able+past
he could walk.

le implies the meaning of completing an activity by assimilating it totally to one's self.

(24. C) a śikhi le
this learn+conn.part. take+imp.
learn it up (and make it your own)

Similarly:

(24. D) pat̪h vāci le: read it up.
(24. E) a khai le: eat it up.

aw implies that the activity modified by the verb has to be accomplished first before a subsequent activity can be undertaken:

(24. F) jəmwa vehla, hath dhoi aw
eat+gerund before hand wash+conn.part. come+imp.
(first) wash your hands, before eating.

(24. G) ləkhi aw
write+conn.part. come+imp.
(first) write.

ap denotes the completion of an activity for a third person.

(24. H) ləkhi ap
write+conn.part. give+imp.
write it out for him.

jō is used as a modifier for sensorial verbs such as smell, touch, eat, hear. In its primary sense, it means 'to see', but as a modal, the sense of 'to see' is extended to the idea of 'to experience'. Normally, **jō** is used with the connective participle:

Thus:

(24. I) a cəkhi jō
this taste+conn.part. see+imp.
Try tasting this.

(24. J) a phul]	sunghi	jo
this flower	smell+ conn.part.	see+imp.

3.2.7 Negation:

Gujarati uses the following adverbs to mark negation: *na*, *na*, *na'*, *ma*, *rakhi* and two compounded forms *nathi* and *nhoto*.

Negation in Gujarati is of two types. The speaker can either answer a question in the negative or he can negate a statement.

3.2.7.1. Negation as a response to a question:

Two adverbs are used, either *na* or *na'*. Of the two, *na'* has a stronger negative force than *na*, especially with stress on the first syllable.

(25. a) tu ave che?	na
you come che+prest.	no
are you coming ? No.	

(25. b) tu ave che?	na'
you come che+prest.	no
Are you coming ? No.	

3.2.7.2. Negation of a statement:

In this case three adverbs are used: *na*, *na'*, and *nathi*. The distribution of these forms is well-defined and is determined by the form of the verb used.

na' is used with all the simple tenses, with the Future and the Past Perfect and the Future and Past continuous tenses. Normally the negative adverb immediately precedes the verb, but in the case of the simple present and simple past, it can also follow the verb.

Simple Present

(25. c) e bole	e na' bole	e bole na'
he speaks.	he doesn't speak.	he doesn't speak.

Simple Past

(25. d) e cali	e na' cali	e cali na'
she walked.	she didn't walk.	she didn't walk.

With these two tenses *na'* can either be preposed before the verb or can follow.

Simple Future

(25. e) e calse	e na' calse
(s)he will walk.	(s)he will not walk.

Past Perfect

(25. f) e awyo hato	e na' awyo hato
He had come.	He had not come.

Future Perfect

(25. g) e gulab lawyo haše	e gulab na' lawyo haše
He will have brought the rose.	He will not have brought the rose.

Past Continuous

(25. h) e awto hato	e na' awto hato
He was coming.	He was not coming.

Future Continuous

(25. i) e awto həše	e na' awto həše
He will be coming.	He will not be coming.

With the past continuous, the negation can precede the auxiliary verb: *hovū*. This case is treated in 3.2.7.4 below

3.2.7.2. With the imperative forms, either simple or future, /na/ is preferred. The adverb is placed immediately before the imperative verb.

Imperative:

(25. j) ja	na ja
go.	don't go.

Future Imperative:

(25. k) ja jo	na ja jo
You may go.	You may not go.

na is also used with the gerundial form and the conditional forms of the verb:

(25. l) tarū awvū	tarū na awvū
Your coming.	Your not coming.

(25. m) jo tu kam kərət, to a na that.
--

If you had done the work, this would not have happened.

3.2.7.3. *nathi* is used with the continuous and perfect forms of the present i.e. forms that use the auxiliary base *ch-*

Present Continuous:

(25. n) e kam kəre che	e kam nathi karto
he does work.	he does not do work.

Present Perfect:

(25. o) ehne kam kidhū che	ehne kam nathi kidhū,
he has done the work	he has not done the work.

In fact *nathi* is a combination of *na* and the connective participle of *thəvū*: to become and literally denotes a negation of the state of 'becoming' implied by the main verb.

3.2.7.4. *nhoto* similarly is a compound of *na* and the past participle of the verb *hovū*: to happen. It is used only when *na* precedes the forms: *həto*, *həti*, *hətə*, *hətū*.

(25. p) chəgən awto həto

Chagan was coming.

can be negated as in 3.2.7.1, as

(25. q.1.) chagən nə[~] awto hətə.

and also as:

(25. q.2.) chagən awto nhətə.

This form is normally used in those parts of Gujarat bordering Maharashtra, where a similar form nəwəhtə: 'was not' is in current usage.

3.2.7.5. ma and rakhī are little used in daily Gujarati. ma if at all used, occurs only as a negative answer:

(25. r) tu ave che ? ma : are you coming ? No.

3.3 Compounds

3.3.0. Compounding in Gujarati.

A compound is a lexical unit in which two morphs which are free forms can occur with or without sandhi modification. Compounding is of two kinds:

True compounds where the lexical units combine to form a new word. Basically all meaningful units i.e. Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs can enter into a compound construction. Compounds can be classified on the basis of two criteria: formal and semantic. Pseudo compounds: more in the nature of reduplication where there is only one true meaningful unit and the other unit is a variant of the first.

Thus /hira-moti/ 'diamonds-pears' i.e. jewelry

On the other hand the compound /dudh-budh/ (milk+echo form of milk) is not a compound in the true sense of the term and hence is treated as a Reduplicative compound.

3.3.1. True Compounds:

3.3.1.1 Formal Typology:

This typology is limited to the word-classes that can enter into a compounding process. Of the 16 theoretical compounds possible in Gujarati, only 11 are possible: (Participial forms are treated as verbs)

Noun as the 1st element:

N. + N. ma-bap mother and father

N. + Adj. mədh-mithū honey-sweet

N. + V. pan-khər leaf-fall

N. + Adv. —

Verb as the 1st element:

V. + N. —

V. + Adj. —

V. + V. aw-ja come-go (constant movement)

V. + Adv. —

Adjective as the 1st element

Adj. + N. mithū-dərakh grape-sweet (sweet as a grape)

Adj. + Adj. lal-bhədək red-flaming (flaming-red)

Adj. + V. vək-dekho crooked-look (one who squints)

Adj. + Adv. —

Adverb as the 1st element

Adv. + N. əti-ghai very hurry (in a great hurry)

Adv. + Adj. əti-krur very cruel

Adv. + V. mədə-awu late-comer

Adv. + Adv. vəhelū-mədə soon-late (sooner or later)

Remarks:

(i) The nature of the eventual compound resulting from the adjunction of these meaningful units depends on the grammatical category of the morphs as well as their position within the compound:

When both the lexical elements are nouns or participles (acting as nouns), the resultant compound is a noun as in ma-bap, aw-ja

When the second element of a compound is a participle, the whole compound is a neuter noun, irrespective of the nature of the first element: vək-dekho, mədə-awu

When one of the compounding elements is an adjective, the whole compound acts as an adjectives, except when the second element is a participle, in which case it acts as a noun. kalū-meš (N+N. soot-black), phul-sundər (N+Adj: flower-pretty) both of which are adjectives, but vək-dekho acts as a noun.

Constructions with two adverbs act as adverbs; war-war (again and again). In all other cases, the adverb is subservient to the other grammatical class.

(ii) Adjectives ending in /ū/ behave as variable adjectives.

(26) e'ni khət̪t̪l-mit̪t̪hi vato na səməj
his sweet+Fem. Pl. – sour+Fem.Pl. talk+Pl. not listen+imp.
Do not listen to his sweet talk.

Similarly participial forms can be declined and behave like nouns.

(26. a) a gəla-pədənji vato na səməj
this throat-catcher+gen. talk+Pl. not listen+imp.
Do not listen to this accuser.

3.3.1.2 Semantic Typology:

On the basis of semantic relationships existing between the forms, a large number of classes can be generated. The most important ones are listed below:

3.3.1.2.1 Equational:

Both the forms have the same meaning and reinforce each other:

sukh-cen: peace tod-phod: breakage

nokri-dhəndho: business

3.3.1.2.2 Metonymic:

Both the compounds taken together relate to a third compound. Normally the two compounds represent within the culture the extreme poles within which the third concept is circumscribed. Diamonds and pearls together imply jewelry

ma-bap (father and mother=parents).

hira-moti (diamonds –pearls=jewels)

pəisa-təka (coin+coin=wealth)

kharū-khot̪ū: (true and false=all that can be said).

3.3.1.2.3 Functional:

In this compound, one of the compounding elements specifies the function of the first. gnan-data (knowledge-giver= teacher)

nəgər-palək (city-guardian=mayor)
ghər-phədu: (house-breaker)

3.3.1.2.4 Locative:

One of the words specifies the an activity and the other (preferably the second) the place where the activity is conducted. The most commonly used are: ghər, waḍo, khanū (also pronounced as khanū), mohollo.

tar-ghər: (wire-house= telegraph-office)
həthi-khanū: (elephant-house)
sutar-mohollo: (carpenters'-district)
ghāchi-waḍo: (oil-presser's district)

3.3.1.2.5. Attributive:

In this compound the first element qualifies the second and gives it a particular determination:

candra-mukhi (moon-faced=beautiful)
ghoḍ-mukh (horse-face)

3.3.1.2.6. Intensifier:

One of the elements (preferably the first) provides an attribute which acts as an intensifier for the quality referred to in the other element. The resultant compound is practically a simile.

t̥həndu-bərəf: (cold-ice: as cold as ice)
mədh-mit̥ t̥hū: (honey-sweet: as sweet as honey)
lili-ghas (green-grass: as green as grass)
kəḍwū-jher (bitter-poison: as bitter as poison)

3.3.1.2.7 Enumerative

Normally made up of an adjunction of ordinals, the lower being first and the higher next; the compound generally specifies a certain approximate quantity:

be-trən: two or three (around two)
dəs-bar : ten or twelve (around ten)

3.3.2. Reduplicative Compounds:

In these compounds, one of the participating members is a repetition either partial or total of the other. Gujarati is excessively rich in reduplicative compounds and a basic typology of these compounds (a modified version of Abbi, 1992) is given below:

3.3.2.1. Expressives:

Expressives are total reduplications in which the compound word is an onomatopoeic representation of a sound occurring in the real world. Gujarati has a varied repertoire of these reduplicatives:

(i) Animal Noises:
cī-cī: chirping of birds.
cū-cū: squeaking of mice.
bhō-bhō: barking of dogs.

(ii) Natural Noises:

t̥əpt̥əp : drops of water falling.
phər-phər: rustling of wings.
sər-sər: rustling of leaves.

khəl-khəl : plentiful flowing of water as in a stream.

(iii) Inanimate Noises.

chən-chən: noise of cymbals.

ding-ding: chimes of a small clock.

cər-cər: tearing or cutting of a thin object (paper).

dhəg-dhəg: rhythmic beating (as of the heart).

(iv) Sensorial Reduplication:

Here a particular sensorial faculty is evoked by means of a reduplication.

- sight: jhag-məg: twinkling of an object; cək-cək: steady shine of an object.
- touch: gil-gil or gal-gal: said of a slimy object.
- smell: məgh-məgh: pleasant perfume of flowers.
- taste: t̥əm-t̥əm: sharp and spicy.
- body sensations: thər-thər (shiver) kəl-kəl (biting pain).

3.3.2.2. Echo-words

In these pseudo-compounds, there exists only one true member. The other is only a partially modified form and acts as an intensifier.

Gujarati has a large number of devices for generating out such forms:

(i) adjunction of /b/ :

mar-bar (mar=hit).
kapo-bapo (kapo=cut).
tar-bar (tar=wire).

(ii) If the word already begins with /b/, then a /ph/ is adjuncted.

bari-phari (bari=window).
bot-phot̥ (bot̥ = a boat).

(iii) Elision of the initial consonant /p/ or /b/ when followed by /a/

padośi: 'neighbour' forms ađośi -padośi.
baju: 'side' forms aju-baju.
pas: 'side' forms as-pas.

(iv) Vocalic modification of the first member :

- addition of /e/
tipū: drop yields tipe-tipū: drop by drop.
- mathū: head yields mathe-mathū: heads aligned together.
- addition of /o/ with or without reduction of the root verb:
hath: hand yields hatho-hath: hand by hand.
lag: chase yields lago-lag: frenzied chase.
- addition of a nasal:
gal: abuse yields galəngal also galəmgal: excessive abuse.
var: times yields varəmvar: innumerable times.
dəp̥: run yields dəpəndəp̥ also dəpəməp̥: hurry and scurry.

3.3.2.3. Iteratives and Progressives

In some cases the total reduplication of verbal participles adds to them the idea of progression.

boltā: speaking boltā-boltā: while speaking.

caltā: walking caltā –caltā: while walking.
 ləkhtā: writing ləkhtā- ləkhtā: while writing.

Progressives are possible only with the /ə/ form of the verbal participle.

Another set of progressives is built out of the verb root. In that case the stress is on the repetition of the action:

puch: ask puch-puch: keep on asking.
 ləkh:write ləkh-ləkh: keep on writing.
 t̪hok: hammer t̪hok-t̪hok: keep on hammering.

3.3.2.4. Distributives:

The repetition of a noun of quantity or an ordinal can introduce the idea of distribution of the quantity:

kən̪: granule kən̪-kən̪: each granule.
 t̪hekaṇe: place t̪hekaṇe-t̪hekaṇe: every place.
 t̪ipū: drop t̪ipū-t̪ipū: each drop.
 (compare: t̪ipe-t̪ipū: drop by drop).
 be: two be-be: each of two.
 ek: one ek-ek: each of one.

3.3.2.5 Clipped Compounds

Gujarati creates portmanteau forms or clipped compounds by deleting the final syllable of the first part of a reduplicated element. Thus

t̪hekaṇet̪hekaṇe is reduced to t̪hek̪t̪hekaṇe: every place.

(26. b) t̪hek̪t̪hekaṇe e'ne cəpdjyo joi
 In every place he+dat. book+pl se+past
 He saw books (spread out) in every place.

Similarly:

at̪lū-at̪lū yields: at̪.at̪lū: this much.
 tet̪lū-tet̪lū yields: tet̪.tet̪lū: that much.
 avəd̪avəd̪i becomes avavəd̪i.

3.3.3. Reduplication as a Lexical Process:

Reduplications are a rich source of Nouns and Verbs in Gujarati. Three main techniques are used:

1. The addition of an /i/ to a reduplicated form yields a feminine noun, very often with a pejorative meaning:
 maramar→maramari (fight).
 galəmgal→galəmgali (excessive abuse).
 dəqəmdəq→dəqəmdəqj (running about).
2. The addition of –vū to a reduplicated compound, yields a verb form in a large number of cases:
 bəd̪ bəd̪: muttering bəd̪bəd̪vū : to mutter.
 thərthər: shivering thərthərvū: to shiver.
 kəmkəm: shuddering kəmkəmvū: to shudder.

3. Certain reduplicatives act as determiners and when added to a verb, modify the verb and add to it a certain specificity:

khavū: to eat but gəgəpə khavū: to Guzzle, to eat in haste.

Similarly pivū: to drink when qualified as dhəs-dhəs pivū acquires the more specific sense of swallowing a liquid hastily. Gujarati admits a large number of these verbs of which some of the most frequent forms are listed below:

khil-khil həsvū: to laugh merrily.

cər-cər kapvū: to cut speedily.

dhəp-dhəp calvū: said of the walk of a heavy-footed person.

səp-səp calvū: to walk quickly.

phəs-phəs calvū: to walk dragging one's feet.

pət̪.pət̪ bolvū: to speak fast.

phər-phər bolvū: to speak without hesitation.

dəq̪dəq̪ rəqvū: to weep loudly.

3.4. Modifiers

Modifiers or Adjuncts (Cardona, 1965) are grammatical elements that are added on either to Nominalisers or Verbs. These are four in number: Adverbs, Conjunctions, Postpositions, and Interjections (Emphasis Markers and Tags will be treated separately in 4.3.). Normally these are invariable and do not admit any change, with the exception of derived adverbs.

3.4.1 Adverbs

Adverbs in Gujarati modify the verb or the adjective to which they are adjuncted. The normal order is Adv.+Verb as in the sentences below:

(27. a) pachə], cal: walk behind 27. (b) təmhe dhime bolo: you speak slowly
 behind walk+Imperative you slowly speak+Present
 (27. c) evd̪i nani vət̪: 'such a small matter.'
 such small matter

Adverbs are of two kinds: Derived and Underived.

3.4.1.1 Derived Adverbs

These are correlative with pronouns and can indicate Size, Quality, Quantity, Manner, Place, Time.

Adverbs of size, manner and quantity, like adjectives and pronouns ending in 'o', admit number, gender and case declensions.

evd̪o, evd̪i, evd̪ū, evd̪a, evd̪ə: 'so much'

The full set of derived adverbs is given below in tabular form:

	Size	Quality	Quantity	Manner	Place	Time
Deictic	e evd̪o	evo	ət̪lo	əm/əm	əhi/hyā	hyare
	a avd̪o	avo	ət̪lo	am	əhi /hyā	əhyare
Relative	je jevd̪o	jevo	jet̪lo	jəm	jyā	jyare
Correl.	te tevd̪o	tevo	tēt̪lo	təm	tyā	tyare
Interr.	ke kevd̪o	tevo	ket̪lo	kəm	kyā	kyare

A variant of /hyā/ is /əhyā/. Similarly /ətyare/ is a variant of /tyare/.

3.4.1.2 Underived Adverbs

These are basically lexical items, since with a few exceptions they undergo no change. The main adverbs are listed below, with as far as their possible, their opposite forms listed:

3.4.1.2.1 Adverbs of Place:

tə̤le, hethə̤l:	nice: 'below'	ūce, upə̤r: 'above'
dur, cetṳ:	'distant'	pas, nəjdik : 'near'
same, agə̤l:	'in front'	pachə̤l: 'behind'
sərvə̤tr, səghle:	'all'	
aspas, cotəraph, phərtū:	'all round'	

3.4.1.2.2 Adverbs of Manner:

ve'elo, jəldi, jhə̤t:	early	mədə̤o: 'late'
sət̥he, ek̥tho:	'together'	eklo: 'alone'
dhime, aste:	'slowly'	jəldi : 'quickly'
əmtho, phokə̤t, nəkamū:	'in vain'	
varū, thik:	'well, alright'	
ocinto, əkasmat:	'suddenly'	
matr, phəkt:	'only'	
ləghbhə̤g:	'approximately'	

3.4.1.2.3 Adverbs of Quantity:

bilkul, tədə̤n:	wholly
atyānt:	'much'
bə̤s:	'enough'
vədhare:	'further'

3.4.1.2.4 Adverbs of Time:

aj, aje:	'today'	ka̤le:	'tomorrow'
gə̤ika̤lē: 'the day before'			
pa̤ram diwse:	the day after tomorrow.		
hə̤mnā:	'right now'	kvacit:	'rarely'
		səda:	'always'
		nityə̤:	'perpetually'

3.4.1.2.5 Adverbs of Interrogation, Affirmation and Negation

In addition to the derived interrogative adverbs, the following adverbs mark interrogation in Gujarati:

shə̤, shə̤ vaste, shə̤ mate

Gujarati admits the following adverbs of negation:

na, nə̤, nə̤l, nə̤thi, nə̤tho, rakhī and ma

These have been treated in 3.2.7. above.

The affirmative adverbs are: ha, hə̤; jə̤rUr, albat, mUkarər (Arabic) əvəsyə (Sanskrit).

3.4.2 Connectives

Conjunctions or Connectives are lexical items and undergo no change. These conjunctions can join words or clausal phrases. Conjunctions at the syntactic level will be handled in 4.2.2 below.

(28. a) chəgən ənə̤ magən avyo

Chagan and Magan come+past
Chagan and Magan came.

(28. b) chəgən avyo pə̤n magən gəyo.
Chagan come+Past but Magan go+past
Chagan came but Magan went.

At the clause level Gujarati conjunctions can be classed under two major heads. Coordinating conjunctions join two or more clauses which share the same sentential hierarchy; resulting in compound sentences. Subordinating conjunctions on the other hand join clauses in which one clause occupies a hierarchy lower than the other, which generates complex sentences.

3.4.2.1.1 Coordinating conjunctions:

3.4.2.1.1 Connectives: ne, ənə̤, tətha (and) bənne (both)
tətha marks a formal register, whereas ne/ənə̤ are informal.

3.4.2.1.2 Opposition or Adversative:

pə̤n, pərəntu, kintu 'but'; chəta pə̤n, təthi pə̤n 'notwithstanding'.

Whereas pə̤n is used in informal discourse, pərəntu and kintu mark a formal register.
chəta pə̤n, təthi pə̤n are used as stronger adversatives.

(28. c) kam kəro pə̤n a to nakhus̥: do work but he is always dissatisfied.
work do+Imp but he emphasis dissatisfied.

3.4.2.1.3 Disjunction: əthva 'either - or', ke 'or', əthwato 'or else'

/əthwa/ marks an exclusive disjunction; whereas /ke/ is inclusive in nature:

(28. d) ram əthwa magən avše: Either Ram or Magan will come (but not both).

(28. e) prəvin ke sita avše: Pravin or Sita will come (both can come).

/əthwato/ can be used only to link sentences and has the meaning of 'or else':

(28. f) nərendra ajna vimanthi avše, əthwato kalnI gadJthi avše.
Narendra today plane+by come+fut. or else tomorrow+gen. train+by come+fut.
Narendra will come by today's flight or else by train tomorrow.

3.4.2.1.4 Iteration: və̤lI 'once more, also'

(28. g) və̤lI usae kəhyū
also Usha say+past
Usha also said.

3.4.2.1.5 Negation: na---na 'neither---nor'

The double negation allows the addressee to negate either at the phrasal level or at the sentential level:

(28. h) hū na magənne nə̤ chəgənne olkhū chū
I neither Magan+acc. nor Chagan+acc. know+pres. aux.
I know neither Magan nor Chagan.

(28. i) na magən avyo, nə̤ to chəgən gəyo.
neither Magan come+past, nor emph. Chagan go+past.
Neither did Magan come, nor did Chagan go.

3.4.2.2 Subordinating conjunctions:

3.4.2.2.1 Dependent: The main conjunction is /ke/.

(28. j) ram kəhe che ke hū avis
ram say+prest. be+prest. that I come+fut.
Ram says that he will come.

3.4.2.2.2 Causal: kəm ke, karaṇ ke ‘because of’

(28. k) pravin avyo nəhi, karaṇ ke eni tabiyat thik na həti.
Pravin come+past not, because his health well not be+past
Pravin did not come because he was unwell.

3.4.2.2.3 Probability:təthapi, kədac, kədاقت, kədapi ‘perhaps’

(28. l) kədاقت rohit avṣe
perhaps Rohit come+fut.
Perhaps Rohit will come.

3.4.2.2.4 Conditional: Conditionals are always in pairs with the first conjunction being a

correlative:

jo - to ‘if - then’
je ke to pən ‘if - then still’

(28. m) jo hū avət to hū a kam kərət
If I come+conditional then I this work do+ conditional
If I had come, I would have done this work.

3.4.2.2.5 Explicative: Gujarati has two explicative connectors: ke and et;le:

(28. n) ravi atlo du:khi həto ke təmhe puchšo nəhi.
Ravi so much unhappy be+past result you ask+fut. not
Ravi was so unhappy that you need not ask.

3.4.3 Postpositions

In Gujarati, postpositions normally show the time, place, direction, cause or means. They always follow the noun, which is appropriately declined for case and number as per the postposition used. Some postpositions are directly attached to the noun, whereas others require the interposition of the clitics na-ne-ni after them. These are in fact genitive declensions with gender markings. The choice of the gender markings has nothing to do with the noun's gender per se but is conditioned by the postposition that follows.

Thus the postposition mā ‘in’ requires no clitic modification: gharmā.

vace ‘between’ on the other hand requires the addition of the case marker –ni to the noun:
(29.) ghərni one məgənni vəcce: between the house and Magan.

- Postpositions directly apposed to the noun:

mā	‘in’
pər	‘on’

- Postpositions taking ni:

These normally show the location of the noun in relation to the sentence. The most common forms are:

püt̥he, püt̥həl, pəchwaḍe, pachəl, pəchi;	‘behind, after’
mədhye, māhe,əndər	‘inside’

vəcce,vəcmā	
phərtū,əspas, cotərəph	
par, arpar	
bəhar	
agał, əgadži, sənmukh,same,samū	
pase, kone	
tərəph,bhənqi,	
təle,nice,hət̥he,hət̥hal	
upər	
peṭ̥he,prəmaṇe,bərabər,maphək	
maphət, həste	
sathe,jode,səngh	
pəsethi	
uprant	
babət	

‘between’	
‘all around’	
‘across’	
‘out’	
‘before’	
‘to, near’	
‘towards’	
‘below, under’	
‘above, ‘on’	
‘like’	
‘through’	
‘along with’	
‘away from’	
‘besides’	
‘regarding’	

(29. a) ma'ara ghərni same bag che:
(29. b) e chəgənni tərəph qədyo:
(29. c) ta'ra pəgnı hethəl ū che ?:

- Postpositions taking na	
səmet, səhlt, məl̥ine	
səmip	
sudhi, lag̥i	
həste	
vət̥e, thi, thəki	
jevū, sərkhū	
kərt̥ā, thi	
vina, vəgər	
suddhā	
ənge	
bərabər	

There is a garden in front of my house.
He ran towards Chagan.
What is beneath your leg ?

(29. d) a uśana ənge ū kəhe che:
(29. e) sigreṭ na vina e jəgi na ūkə:
(29. f) bagna səmip ek nədi həti:

- Postpositions taking ne	
vaste, maṭ̥e, karəṇe	
lidhe	
bədle	

‘along with’	
‘near’	
‘upto’	
‘through (someone)’	
‘by means of’	
‘like’	
‘than’ (comparision)	
‘without, except’	
‘in addition to’	
‘concerning’	
‘like’	

What is he saying regarding Usha ?
He can't live without cigarettes.
There was a river next to the garden.

(29. g) pəisane vaste e kəi pən kərse:
(29. h) chəgənnə bədle məgən awyo

‘for the sake of’
‘owing to,because of’
‘instead of’

He'll do anything for money.
Magan came instead of Chagan.

Remarks:

(i) The boundary line between postpositions and derivative adverbs is tenuous. A majority of postpositions can be used as adverbs

(29. i) a t̪ebəlni upər che (postposition)

It table+gen. on is
It is on the table.

(29. j) e upər cədhyo (adverb)

he above climbed
He climbed above.

(ii) Certain postpositions cannot however function as adverbs. This is due to the semantics of the word in Gujarati which constrains the word from acting as an adverb. These are:

kən̪e 'near', məphətə 'through', bhən̪i 'in the direction of'

pət̪he 'like' bərabər 'like' wina, 'without'

ənge, 'concerning' kərt̪ā, 'than'

sudhi 'up to' suddhā 'in addition to'

All postpositions that take 'ne' as ending.

All of these can function as postpositions alone and cannot be used as adverbs.

(iii) There is a great deal of variation in the choice of the gender marker. Thus in the case of upər, məphətə, bhən̪i, one hears both ni and na

(29. k) a t̪ebəlni upər che OR a t̪ebəlni upər che : It is on the table.

(29. l) lila t̪renni məphətə avi OR lila t̪renna məphətə avi : Lila came by train.

(iv) Postpositions ending in /-ū/ such as jevū, sərkhū are variable and inflect for number and gender of the noun they relate to.

(29. m) chokri jevo chokro: a girlish boy.
girl like+Masc. boy+Masc.

(29. n) t̪amotā jevū nakh: a tomato-red nose.
tomato like+neut. nose+neut.

3.4.4 Interjections

Like Conjunctions, Exclamations/Interjections are lexical items. The most common Interjections are classified and listed below. Approximate equivalents are given for them.

Admiration: he, aho, oy 'Oh!, Ah!'

Pain: hayhay,hay,bapre,mare: Oh!Ah!Ouch!

Sorrow: aře, hayhay, ramram, bapre, mare 'Oh!' 'My!' 'My God!'

Anger: aři, ařya, 'You, there!'

Indifference: chonę, rəhyū 'Leave it at that!'

Admonishment:cup, bəs, khəbəđdar 'Enough!'

Surprise: ədhədhə 'Ah!'

Contempt dhi, chik, chət̪,thu 'Fie !'

Agreement bərabər, həa, ha, thiik 'O.K. !'

Negation: uhū: 'no', 'I think not'.

Plauditory: vah, śabaś,dhənya: 'Bravo', 'Congratulations'

Chapter 4

SYNTAX

Little research has been done on the syntax of Gujarati, partly because of the influence of traditional grammars which have always favoured the morphological approach. In this chapter, a broad overview of the syntactic patterns of Gujarati will be provided in terms of syntactic types as well as sentence typologies.

4.1. Syntactic Types:

Like a majority of languages, Gujarati recognises four main types which are mutually exclusive i.e. at any given type a sentence can belong to one and only one type. Moreover there exists a close between the type and its pragmatic function, as well as the intonative patterns.

4.1.0. Declarative:

A declarative sentence affirms a statement. Within the ambit of a speech act, it is a stative and declares a fact which is verifiable:

(1) məgən kam kare che
magan work do+pres. aux.
Magan is working.

(2) gujorati gandhijini bhaśa che
Gujarati Gandhiji+gen. language aux.
Gujarati is the language of Gandhiji.

A declarative sentence can either enter into a copular construction as in (2) or can admit an action verb such as /kər/ 'do' in (1).
Declaratives normally have a falling intonation (cf. 1.5.3).

4.1.1. Interrogative:

The main function of this sentence type is to ask a question to obtain further information (3) or in order to verify the bonafides of an earlier statement (Yes-No questions (4)).

(3) chogən kyă jay che?
Chagan where go aux.
Where is Chagan going ?

(4) tu kale avśe ?
you tomorrow come+fut
Will you come tomorrow?

In a Yes-No question (4), the interrogation marker such as /śun/ remains absent, although it could be explicitly used as in:

(4 a.) tu kale avśe śun?
you tomorrow come+fut. what
Will you come tomorrow?

Yes-No questions which enter into a copular construction do not normally introduce the copula:

(5) tarū nam ū?

your name what?

What is your name?

The copula /che/ has been omitted by the speaker. Using it would mark a more polite or formal speech-register.

Interrogatives normally admit a rising intonation (cf. 1.5.3.).

4.1.2. Imperatives:

This type is generally used to mark facts or mands i.e. requests or orders. It is used when the speaker wants the addressee to carry out a certain action and either requests him or order him to undertake the same.

(6) kale av

tomorrow come

Come tomorrow.

(7) kale avje

tomorrow come+please

Please come tomorrow.

(6) is a direct order and the intonation adopted by the speaker is an abrupt falling tone of voice. (7) which uses the future imperative, marks a request on the part of the speaker to the addressee. The intonation which is moreover less abrupt, shows this attitude on the part of the speaker.

4.1.3. Exclamatives:

Exclamatives reveal an emotional affect on the part of the speaker vis-à-vis a certain situation. The speaker uses this sentence type to mark his emotional attitude and specific exclamative markers are used for the purpose.

(8) ja, mər!

go, die!

go and be damned!

(9) vah! vah! ū philəm həti!

Bravo! Bravo! what film aux.

Bravo ! (Wow!) What a film!

As shown in 3.4.4., Gujarati has a wide range of exclamation markers varying from a positive and favorable emotive response to a negative or even a pejorative reaction. Thus, whereas (8) marks the anger of the speaker, (9) shows his approbation.

Exclamations have a fall-rising intonative pattern.

4.2. Sentence Typologies.

Gujarati sentences admit three major sentence types: Simple, Compound and Complex. The difference resides in the number of verbs used which determines the number of sentence units and also in the nature of the conjunction used.

4.2.1. Simple Sentences

A simple sentence admits only one verbal element, either a copula or a full action verb. In what follows, the basic structure of the simple sentence in terms of its word-ordering will be handled first, followed by an analysis of the internal dependencies within it.

4.2.1.1. Word-Order:

4.2.1.1.1. General Word-Order:

As is the case with all Indo-Aryan languages, Gujarati admits the SOV order in unmarked sentences. Depending on the nature of the verb, the following sub-types can be established:

(i) Subject + Copular-Attribute + Copula.

In this type of structure the subject has as its verbal element the copula, which provides more information about the subject. This information is of three types: the subject admits an adjectival phrase (10.a), an adverbial phrase (10.b) or a noun phrase (10.c).

(10.a) lina sundər che

lina pretty copula

Lina is pretty.

(10.b) lina bagmā che

Lina garden+loc. copula

Lina is in the garden.

(10.c) lina prophesər che

lina professor copula

Lina is a professor.

The possibility of a copular construction without any attributes exists, as in

(10.d) hū chū

I am.

in the sense of affirming one's existence. But apart from a philosophical or literary construct, or as an answer to a question of the type "Are you there ?" such a structure is rarely used in colloquial Gujarati.

(ii) Subject+Intransitive Verb

The subject admits an intransitive verb, which could in its turn admit an adverbial phrase as in (11.a) or be an absolute construction (11.b) and admit no object whatsoever.

(11.a) ram ghərmā gəyo

ram house+loc. go+past

Ram went into the house.

(11.b) bhav utərya che

prices come down aux.

prices have come down.

(iii) Subject+ Transitive Verb

This is the most common type of structure. The transitive verb can admit a Direct Object (12. a) or an Indirect object (12. b) or both Direct and Indirect Objects (12 c.). The objects are placed before the verb. In the case of a Direct and Indirect Object, the Indirect Object is placed first and the Direct Object follows.

(12. a) mitae phəl khadhū

mita+erg. fruit eat+past

Mita ate the fruit.

(12. b) mitae məgənne kəhyū

mita+erg. magan+dat. tell+past

Mita told (to) Magan.

(12. c) mitae	linane	cɔḍi	api
mita+erg.	lina+dat.	book	give+past
S	O1	O2	V

Mita gave the book to Lina.

In both the sentences (10) and (11) the subject node is proposed first. In (11) the object node: *Lina* and *book* follows. The verbal node which in fact subsumes the object node closes both sentences (10) and (11).

4.2.1.1. Internal Word-Order:

Internal word-order relates to the ordering of elements within the two major nodes of a

Gujarati sentence: the Nominal node and the Verbal node.

(i) *The Nominal node or the Noun Phrase:*

The noun is the nucleus of this node. The noun in Gujarati can stand by itself, can be replaced by the pronoun or be preposed by determiners which are a variety of attributive forms that qualify the noun.

Thus three main types of internal ordering can be specified:

- a) The nuclear Noun standing alone.
- b) The Noun replaced by a nuclear pronoun.
- c) The Noun preceded by determiners with their own ordering.

a) *The Noun standing alone:*

In (13. a) and (13. b) the nouns /ram/ or /chokro/ stand alone.

(13. a) ram gəyo: Ram went.

(13. b) chokro gəyo: the boy went.

The noun can admit case endings as well as clitics and post-positions:

(13. c) rame	kam	kidhu
ram+erg.	work	do+past
Ram did the work.		

(13. d) ghərnī	pase	niṣāl	che
house+gen.	near	school	aux.
Near the house is the school.			

Internal embedding is permitted and the noun can admit another noun to which it is related by a genitive:

(13. e) ghərnā	chat	pər
house+gen.	roof	on
On the roof of the house.		

b) *The Noun substituted by a Pronominal element:*

Pronominalisation is a regular feature in Gujarati and the noun can be replaced by a corresponding pronoun.

Thus (13. a) and (13. b) can be replaced by a single pronoun: /e/

e gəyo: he went ('he' as a substitute for 'Ram' or 'the boy')

The pronoun like the noun can admit case-endings as well as clitics and postpositions.

Sentences 13c - e can be pronominalised with the use of the correct pronoun form:

(13. c) ene	kam	kidhu
he+obl.	work	do+past
He did the work.		

(13. d) eni	pase	niṣāl	che
it+gen.	near	school	aux.
The school is near it.			

(13. e) ena	chat	pər
it+gen.	roof	on
On its roof.		

- *The Noun preceded by determiners:*

The noun can be preceded by a series of determiners. These determiner are the whole set of adjectives which determine the noun in a variety of degrees. These determiners which are seven in number, have their own specific ordering within the noun phrase. The order is as under:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
{Posses}	- Deictic-	{Interro}	- Indefinite-	Quantifier-	Ordinal-Qualitative	NOUN

{-sive } { -gative }

These determiner classes which can also double as pronouns have been treated in 3.1.4. above. (14) is an example where all the adjectives can be seen appended to the noun.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(14) mara	a	kəya	koi	be	pehla	nəva

mīy these which some two first new friends
Which of some of my two new first friends ?

(14) is an extreme example and in normal usage, three or four adjectives can be appended at the most:

(14.a) mara	kəya	be	nəva	mitro
my	which	two	new	friend+Pl. which of my two new friends ?

(14.b) tari	a	koi	phaltu	cɔḍi	nəthi.
your	this	some	useless	book	is not. This is not some useless book of yours.

(ii) *The Verbal node or the Verb Phrase:*

The Verbal node comprises the verb itself (cf. 3.2 et seq.) as well as the nominal, adjectival and adverbial phrases which are dependent on the verb. The Verbal node admits

- the copula which in turn can admit all three classes Adjective Phrases, Noun Phrases and Adverbial Phrases (cf. 4.2.1.1. (i)),
- the intransitive verb construction which admits Adverbial Phrases (cf. 4.2.1.1. (ii)) and
- the transitive verb which allows only for Noun Phrases. (cf. 4.2.1.1. (iii)).

All three dependencies precede the verb.

The Noun Phrase has already been analysed above. The structure of Adjective and the Adverbial phrases is as under:

(a) The Adjective Phrase

This syntactic unit can comprise an adjective of quality which can be optionally preceded by an intensifier. The adjective phrase precedes the copula.
(Intensifier)+ Adjective+ {Copula}

(15. a) magən cətur che
magan adj. clever aux.
Magan is clever.

(15.b) magən ati cətur che
magan very adj.clever aux.
Magan is very intelligent

The Adjectival phrase also admits comparative and superlative degrees (cf. 3.1.2.2) with the possibility of embedding an intensifier in both degrees:

(15.c) magən chəgənthi budhivan che.
Magan chagan+than intelligent aux.
Magan is more intelligent than Chagan.

(15.d) magən chəgənthi ədhik budhivan che.
Magan chagan+than very intelligent aux.
Magan is much more intelligent than Chagan.

(15.e) magən səuthi ədhik budhivan che.
Magan all+than very intelligent aux.
Magan is the most intelligent. (with stress on his intelligence)

b) Adverb Phrase

The adverb phrase in Gujarati can comprise an adverb of manner, time, place etc. (cf. 3.4.1) which in turn can be optionally modified by an intensifier. It can be appended either to a copula or to a main verb which is intransitive:

(Intensifier)+ Adverb+ {Copula. }
{Main verb. }

(16.a) marū ghər pachəl che.
my house behind aux.
My house is behind.

(16.b) təma'ro chokro gənitmā ghəno pachəl pədyo che.
your son maths+in very behind fallen aux.
Your son has fallen much behind in mathematics.

More than one Adverb can be embedded within the phrase in which case Gujarati follows a rigid order:
Time - Manner - Place - Aux/Main verb.

(16.c) magən gəi-kale eklo upər həto
Magan yesterday alone upstairs was
Magan was alone upstairs yesterday.

(16.d) popət səvəre nəkamo heṭhal utəryo
parrot morning in vain down descended
The parrot descended in vain in the morning.

Other adverbial modifiers such as Quantity, Quality, Size do not have rigid rules and can be placed freely. Normally when they are grouped with Adverbs of Manner, Place or Time, they are placed before these adverbs:

4.2.1.2. Subject-Predicate Concord

4.2.1.2.1. The Subject

The subject in Gujarati is normally in the direct case.

(17)chokro avyo
boy come+past
the boy came.

However if the verb is transitive and in the past tense, the subject is in the oblique case and takes the ending /e/.

(17.a) chokro phəl khay che
boy fruit eat+prest. aux.
The boy is eating the fruit.

(17.b) chokrae phəl khadhū
boy fruit eat+past
The boy ate the fruit.

4.2.1.2.1. The Predicate

Subject and Predicate are in a relation of concord which is subject to the nature of the verb as well as the tense that the verb has adopted. The node with which the verb concords can either be the subject or object. This is termed as the dominant node.

(i) Generic Rules of Concord

In subjective constructions (i.e. when the subject is in the direct case) the predicate agrees in gender, number and person with the subject.

(18.a) hū ləkhū chū
I write+prest.+1st+Sg. aux+ prest.+1st+Sg.
I am writing.

(18.b) chokri ləkhti həti
girl write+past+3rd+Fem.+Sg. aux+past+3rd+Fem.+Sg.
The girl was writing.

However when the predicate is a transitive verb and is in the past tense, the subject takes the oblique case and the predicate agrees in number and gender with the direct object. This is known as an objective construction.

(18.c) chokrie lađu khadho
girl+obl. sweet+neut. eat+past+neut.
The girl ate the sweet.

(18.d) məgəne cəpdjı vāci həti
Magan+obl. book+ Fem.+Sg. read+past+ Fem.+Sg. aux+past+ Fem. +Sg.

(ii) Specific Rules of Concord

- When the dominant node is a collective noun, the verb is in the Singular or Plural number, according to the sense of the noun:

(18.e) pəisa meļavya
money+coll. got+Sg.

- When the dominant node is in the masculine or feminine Singular number and is a respect noun, the verb is in the Plural:

(18.f) mehetaji avya: The master came
teacher+resp. come+past.

(18.g) mataji avya: Mother came.
mother+resp. come+past.

- When the dominant node is followed by a noun with the clitics: səhit, suddhā, sathe, thi, the verb is in concord with the dominant node and not the noun that follows:

(18.h) məntri praja sahit avyo
minister subjects with come+past
The minister accompanied by his subjects came.

- When the dominant node comprises two or more nouns of the same gender, the verb is in the Plural of the same gender:

(18.i) gita, sita ne mita avi
Gita+Fem., Sita+ Fem. and Mita+ Fem. come+past+ Fem.
Gita, Sita and Mita came.

- When the dominant node comprises nouns of different genders, the verb is normally in the neuter Plural:

(18.j) kagəl, kələm əne khədiyo tyā mukyā che
paper+Masc., pen+Fem. and ink-pot+Neut. there keep+past+n.Pl. aux.
Paper, pen and inkpot are kept there.

- When the dominant node comprises two nouns or pronouns joined by a disjunctive conjunction (cf. 3.4.2.1.3 and 4.2.2.2.), the predicate concords with the last noun in number and gender.

(18.k) chokro ke chokri saccū boli
boy+ Masc. or girl+ Fem. truth said+ Fem.
The boy or girl spoke the truth.

(18.l) chokri ke chokro saccū bolyo
girl+ Fem. or boy+ Masc. truth said+ Fem.
The boy or girl spoke the truth.

However when they are followed by an indefinite pronoun such as /koi/ which is in apposition to them, then the predicate is in the Plural.

(18.m) vidyarthi ke mehetaji koi avyū nəthi
students or teacher none come+Pl. aux.+neg.
Teacher or students, none have come.

- When the dominant node comprises two or more nouns joined by a disjunctive conjunction and the sentence is in the interrogative; the last noun preceded by the disjunctive conjunction is placed after the verb.

(18.n) tene pen lidhi ke pensil ?
he+acc. pen take+past or pencil.
Did he take a pen or a pencil ?

4.2.2. Compound Sentences

A compound sentence comprises two or more sentences (clauses) which have the same hierarchy at the sentential level and are joined by means of a conjunction. The process is often termed as coordination. Coordination or clause compounding can be of various kinds depending on the nature of the coordinating conjunction (cf. 3.4.1.1. et seq.).

4.2.2.1. Conjunctives: əne, ne and tətha

/əne/, /ne/ and /tətha/ are intra-phrasal connectives and are used to lexical items within a simple sentence. /tətha/ is a formal variant of the former two.

(19.a) ma'ro mamo ne ta'ra pita
my uncle and your father.

(19.b) ma'ro mamo tətha ta'ra pitaji
my uncle and your father (respect).

/əne/ alone can be used as a connective at the sentential level:

(19.c) hū ghore avis əne təne phon kariš
I home come+fut. and you phone do fut.
I'll reach home and phone you.

/ityadi/ or /vigere/ are equivalents of 'etc'.

lobh, matsər, moh ityadi
greed, pride, passion etc.

4.2.2.2. Disjunctive: ke, əthwa, əthwato.

ke and əthwa can join function both at the phrasal and sentential levels. /əthwato/ can be used only to join sentences.

/əthwa/ marks an exclusive disjunction; whereas /ke/ is inclusive in nature:

(20.a.) ram əthwa məgən avśe
ram or magan come+fut.
Either Ram or Magan will come (but not both).

(20.b.) prəvin ke sita avśe
pravin or sita come+fut.
Pravin or Sita will come (both can come).

(20.c) məgən avśe ke eno bhai avśe ?
Magan come+fut. or his brother come+fut.
Magan or his brother will come (both can come).

For quite a few Gujarati speakers, /əthwato/ is a strong disjunctive and it seems to them that a strong stress is laid on the choice offered.

(20.d) bədhū kam aje kər, əthwato be diwəsmā kər.
all work today do, or two days+loc. do.
Do all the work today or do it in two days.

The use of /ke/ would have weakened the choice offered to the addressee.

When sentential connectives share the same verb as in (20.c) and (20.d), the second verb can be optionally deleted:

(20.e.) məgen ke eno bhai avśe ?
magan or his brother come+fut.
Magan or his brother will come.

(20.f) bədhū kam aje, əthwato be diwəsmā kər.
all work today, or else two days+loc. do+imp.
Do all the work today or in two days.

However if the verbs are different, they cannot be deleted

(20.g) tu ləkhśe ke vācśe ?
you write+fut. or read+fut.
Will you write or read ?

4.2.2.3. Adversative: pən̄, pərentu, kintu, chətā, chotā pən̄, tethi pən̄

All can function at the sentential level with the difference that /chətā/ and /kintu/ are formal markers whereas the first two are more used at the colloquial level. /pən̄/ is the most common

adversative. chətā pən̄, tethi pən̄ are used as stronger adversatives and have the meaning of 'never the less', 'notwithstanding' or 'none the less'.

(21.a) aje muškil che, pən̄ kale jərur aviś
today difficult aux., but tomorrow sure come+fut.
Today is difficult, but I'll come surely tomorrow.

(21.b) mē ene cetəvyo həto, chətā pən̄ e gəyo
I him warn+past aux., nonetheless he go+past
I had warned him, nonetheless he went.

4.2.2.4. Negative: nə---nə: neither ---nor.

The negative conjunction is used to negate either two lexical units at the phrasal level or two statements at the sentential level.

(22.a) nə tu nə hū.
neither you nor I.

(22.b) e nə khay, nə khawa de
he neither eat, nor eat+inf.part. give
He neither eats, nor will he let eat (a dog-in-the-manger).

4.2.2.5. Iteration: ne vəl̄I, ne uprant 'once more, also'

Whereas vəl̄I alone functions at the phrasal level (cf. 3.4.2.1.4), ne vəl̄I is an iterative conjunction used to join sentences. ne vəl̄I and ne uprant can be used in free variation.

(23) e avyo, ne vəl̄I ma'rə maṭe bhet lavyo.
he come+past, also my for gift bring+past
He came and in addition brought me a gift.

4.2.3. Complex Sentences

Within a complex sentence, there exists a distinct hierarchy. Two or more propositions can co-exist of which one is at a higher level and the other(s) depend(s) on it. There exists therefore the subordination of one sentence to another, unlike a compound sentence where both occupy the same hierarchical level. This subordination is generally expressed by means of conjunctions which clearly indicate the sentential level.

(24) ene khatri che ke t̄ren avśe
he surely aux. that train come will.
He is sure that the train will come.

In (24) the conjunction /ke/ subordinates the action of coming of the train to the action of being sure about the fact.

Subordination in Gujarati is of three main kinds depending on its nature. The subordinate clause can complete the main clause or add supplementary information by means of a relative pronoun. Finally it can modify the main clause by means of an adverbial or even a participial construct.

4.2.3.1. Completing Clauses:

These are so termed because the subordinate clause complements the main clause by way of adding extra information to the meaning that the verb of the main clause conveys. Normally the verb in the main clause is either a sensorial or cognitive verb such as *feel*, *hear*, *think*, *see* etc. or it is a verb that enunciates such as *say*, *express the opinion* etc. The two clauses are normally linked by the complementiser 'ke': *that*.

(25.a.) məne lagyū ke e avsē.
I+obl. feel+past that he come+fut.
I felt that he would come.

(25.b.) linae joyū ke məgənni təbiyət sari na həti.
Lina+obl. see+past that magan+gen. health good not aux.
Lina saw that Magan was in ill-health.

(25.c.) chəgən e kəhyū ke hū aviś.
Chagan+obl. say+past that I come+fut.
Chagan said that he would come.

Compleutive clauses can also be expressed by means of the anaphoric complementisers: em or am. In that case the subordinate clause precedes:

(25.d.) e avsē am məne na lagyū.
he come+fut. this I+obl. not feel+past
I did not feel that he would come.

Restructuring the compleutive in this manner is a pragmatic strategy since the speaker wants to stress the content of the compleutive clause and hence places it first, follows it up with the anaphoric complementiser and puts the main clause at the end.

4.2.3.2. Relators

In this case the subordinate clause is connected to the main clause by means of a relator or a relative conjunction, which in Gujarati is always: 'je'. The relator can 'relate' either to the subject or to the complement. 'je' is invariable whether it relates to an animate or inanimate antecedent. When in the oblique case, it can be followed by the different case markers. The normal pattern is as under:

Relator+antecedent+subordinate clause+te+ V.P. of main clause.

(26.a) je pustək e'ne lidhi, te moghi che.
which book he+obl. take+past, it expensive aux.
The book which he took is expensive.

(26.b) je chokrani mā tyā rəhe che, tene hū məlyo
which boy+gen. mother there live aux., he+obl. I meet past.
I met the boy, whose mother lives there.

In (26.a) the relative clause refers to the subject of the main clause. In (26.b), the antecedent is a complement.

However when the antecedent is preceded by a determiner, two possibilities are present: Either the user can opt for the normal pattern as in (26. c-d) or he can choose a more literary structure as in (26. e-f). The latter seems to be under the influence of the English relative clause pattern and is not observed among non-English Gujarati speakers:

(26.c) a je pustək, ene lidhi, te moghi che.
This which book, he+obl. take+past, it expensive aux.
This book which he took is expensive.

(26.d)) hū a je chokrane məlyo, teni mā tyā rəhe che.
I this which boy+obl. meet+past, he+gen. mother there live aux.
I met this boy, whose mother lives there.

(26.e) a pustək, je ene lidhi, te moghi che.
This book which he+obl. take+past, it expensive aux.
This book which he took is expensive.

(26.f) hū a chokrane məlyo, jeni mā tyā rəhe che.
I this boy+obl meet+past, who+gen. mother there live aux.
I met this boy, whose mother lives there.

4.2.3.3. : Modifiers:

Modifiers can be either derived adverbs or in certain cases, participial constructions. In the case of derived adverbs, the correlative adverb is often added to the main clause, in which the modifying adverb itself is deleted, since the correlative form indicates the modifier in question.

Modifiers can be of various kinds: Locatives, Temporals, Conditionals, Modals, Purposives and Causals.

4.2.3.3.1 Locatives

Locative clauses in Gujarati are constructed with the help of variable adverbs (cf. 3.4.1.1.). The most common locative clauses are constructed with the marker *jyā*: 'where', *jyātyā* and *jyāpən* 'where ever' 'where so ever' have a greater illocutionary force, because of the addition either of the correlative adverb 'tyā' or the adversative conjunction 'pən'.

(27. a) hū ek gammā rəhū chū, jyā gujərati bolay che
I one city+loc. stay aux., where Gujarati speak+pass. aux.
I live in a city where Gujarati is spoken.

(27. b) jyāpən ene kam məlṣe, e jaśe.
wherever he work get+fut., he go+fut.
He will go where ever he gets work.

Locative clauses are often constructed with the locative correlator: /tyā/ (lit. there). /tyā/ is inserted in the main clause either before or after the subject. When the correlator is used, the subordinate clause with the locative adverb is normally in the first position and the main clause is in the second position.

(27.c) jyā hū rəhū chū, tyā gujərati bolay che
where I stay aux., there Gujarati speak+pass. aux.
Gujarati is spoken where I stay.

Since /tyā/ acts as an anaphora for the whole subordinate construction, the main clause in which it is inserted is placed after the subordinate clause.
Embedding of more than one locative clause by means of a connector like /ne/, /ane/ is also possible.

(27.d) jyā hū rəhū chū əne jyā hū kam kərū chū, amā be kilomit̄erno əntər che
where I live aux. and where I work do aux., there+loc. 2 kms difference be+prest.
There is a distance of two kilometers between where I live and where I work.

The postpositioning of the clitic /hi/ adds the notion of ‘where from’.

(27.e) jyāthi e ave che, te jəgya ujəd che.
where+loc. he come aux., that place deserted be+prest.
The place where he comes from is deserted.

4.2.3.3.2. Temporals

Temporals provide more complex patterns than locatives. Like locatives, the main building blocks of temporal clauses are the variable adverbs of time: jya're, jya'repən, jyāsudhā. Depending on the nature of the visualisation of the events within the time continuum, three main classes of temporal clauses can be established:

- two events simply follow one another in time

(28.a) jya're hū avyo, tya're e pən avyo
when I come+past, at that time he also come+past.
When I came; he also came.

- concomitance or immediate succession in time where the two events follow one another in rapid succession:

Gujarati uses a wide range of strategies in such an eventuality:

(i) The use of the participle followed by ke

(28.b.i) kam thəyū ke hū təne phon kəriš
work do+part. that I you phone do+will
As soon as the work is done, I'll phone you.

(ii) The use of the derived adverb: je'vū

(28.b.ii) je'vū kam thəse, hū təne phon kəriš
as work do+fut. I you phone do+will
As soon as the work is done, I'll phone you.

(iii) The use of the conjunction: ne, əne

(28.b.iii) kam thəse ne hū təne phon kəriš
work do+fut I and I you phone do+will
As soon as the work is done, I'll phone you.

- One event is anterior to the other in the past:

Anteriority of one event to the other is displayed by placing the anterior or posterior event in the participial form, followed by the adverbial markers: pehəlā ‘first’ or pəchi ‘next’ which place the two sentences in a relation of anteriority and posteriority.

(28.c) jəmya pehəlā tyā na jəje
eat+PastPart. first there not go+imp.
Do not go there before eating.

The same sentence could be reworded using pəchi :

(28.c.1) jəmya pəchi tyā jəje
eat+PastPart. next there go+imp.
Go there after eating.

Conditional anteriority i.e. the completion of a posterior action depends on the satisfaction of an anterior condition is shown by the use of the adverbial marker jyāsudhi (jyāve'r in some dialectical forms around Ahmedabad, notably among Parsi speakers). Like all derivates of 'j*' (cf. 3.4.1.1.), the marker can be accompanied by its complement tyāsudhi:

(28.d) jyāsudhi hū nə avū, (tyāsudhi) bəhar na jəjo.
till I not come, (then) you out not go+imp.
Do not go out, till I come.

4.2.3.3.3. Conditionals

Temporal conditionality has been treated in (28.d) above. Non temporal conditionality is shown by means of the conditional verb form (cf. 3.2.1.4. above where it has been treated in depth). Conditionality is doubly marked: by use of the conditional mood as well as the adverbial marker ‘to’ i.e. ‘then’.

(29) tu a kam kərat, to a nə that.
you this work do+cond., then this not happen+cond.
If you had done this work, this would not have happened.

4.2.3.3.4. Manner

The subordinate clause can refer to the manner in which the action in the main clause is accomplished or is to be accomplished. This is accomplished by means of the marker ‘jem’ followed by its complement ‘tem’. ‘jem’ is placed in the main clause, whereas ‘tem’ is preposed to the subordinate clause:

(30 a.) hū jem kəhū, tem kər.
I as say+prest., so do+imp.
Do as I say.

jem can also be preposed to the main clause, without any change in meaning.

(30 b.) jem hū kahū, tem kər.
as I say+prest., so do+imp.
Do as I say.

4.2.3.3.5. Purposives and Causals

These two types have been bunched together since semantically they are closely linked together. Whereas purposive clauses show the intention of the agent, the causal clauses lay more stress on the result of the intention being the cause of a given effect. This is clearly reflected in the overt syntax of the two types of clauses.

- Causals most commonly use the participle form ending in -a followed by the particle -thi (which in fact acts as an Instrumental marker).

(31 a.) t̄ivi j̄owathi, ma'ri ākk khārab thai che.
T.V. watch+participle+particle, my eye bad become+past aux.
My eyes have gone bad, through watching too much T.V.

(31 b.) ma'ri t̄əbiyət khārab hovathi hū ghāre rəhyo
my+gen. health bad be+participle+particle I home+loc. stay+past.
I stayed home on account of bad health.

The use of the structure 'te māṭe', which literally means 'for that (reason)', is also sometimes used:

Thus (31.b) could be paraphrased as:

ma'ri t̄əbiyət khārab hāti, te māṭe hū ghāre rəhyo
my+gen. health bad be+past, for that I home+loc. stay+past
I stayed home on account of bad health.

- Purposives on the other hand use the infinitive participle of the verb.

(31.c) a kam karva, hū ḡphise gayo
this work do+inf.part. I office+loc. go+past
I went to office to do this work.

The addition of 'māṭe' to the infinitive participle, lays stress on the purpose clause which māṭe modifies. Thus (31.c) could be restructured as:

a kam k̄rva māṭe, hū ḡphise gayo
this work do+inf.part. for that I office+loc. go+past
I went to office to do this work.

4.3 Particles

Particles are clitic elements which are affixed to the Noun, Adverb or Verb to modify the sense of the affixed element or that of the sentence as a whole. Gujarati has a wide gamut of particles of which the most common are classified below:

4.3.1 Stress particles

Apart from stress and intonation (see 1.5.), Gujarati uses particles to mark emphasis. Three particles are most commonly used: ya, pən, ja. The first two are inclusive particles whereas the last is an exclusive particle:

(32 a.) mita ya/pən kale avśe
mita even tomorrow come+fut.
Even Mita will come. (as well as those who are coming)

ja is exclusive in nature.

(32 b.) mitaj(ə) kale avśe
Mita only tomorrow come+fut.

Mita alone will come tomorrow. (Only Mita, no one else)

As in English, the positioning of the emphasis marker stresses the element it is apposed to:

(32 c.) mita kalej(ə) avśe
Mita tomorrow only come+fut.
Mita will come only tomorrow.

4.3.2 Respect particles: ji

In this case the particle is used to mark the respect. The article can be added on to both verbs as well as nouns, to mark respect on the part of the speaker:
guruji: respected teacher.

mantri ji: respected minister.

When used with the verb, /ji/ marks a formal style. Moreover to mark respect, the speaker uses the future or future imperative is used instead of the imperative.

(32 d.) mata øne pitane letā avśoji
mother and father bringing will come+respect.
Please come along with mother and father. (speaker treats addressee with respect)

4.3.3 Approximative Particles: -ek,-k, -ad

These forms are used to mark approximation.

-ek is almost invariably adjuncted to ordinals to show an approximate quantity:
pācek: about 5. dəsek: around 10.

-k which morphologically seems to be the form used before vowels is used with adjectives and pronouns of quantity such as:
ketla, t̄hoda and their variants.

The particle makes the quantity indefinite in nature.

(32 e.) mitae ketlik cuko kađhi: Mita detected quite a few errors.

(32 f.) məne thodak pəisa ap: give me some money (approximate quantity).

(32 g.) ketlak loko awya hata: quite a few people had come.

-ad is used only in the expression /ekad/: 'about one' and is generally employed to mark an indefinite quantity or period of time.

(32 h.) hū t̄yā ekad vərəs hato: I was there around a year.

(32 i.) ekad hejar calše: an odd thousand will do.

4.3.4 Question Tags:

These are added on to an affirmative sentence to make it interrogative. Gujarati has a large number of tags which can modify a sentence in this manner: ne, khārū, ke, kem, emke to. Each of these tags has a complex pragmatic value.

4.3.4.1 Simple question tags: ne, khārō / khārū.

These are simple question tags. /ne/ is apposed to the verb form directly.

tū avśene? You'll come, won't you?

/khārū/ which is variable with /khārō/ is separated from the main sentence which is in the affirmative by a slight pause.

(32 j.) e avše, khoro ? He'll come, won't he ?

4.3.4.2 Putative tag: ke

/ke/ adds the notion of a putative request. The speaker by adding /ke/ at the end of the sentence either asks permission or politely requests the addressee :

(32 k.) hū a khaū ke ?

I this eat putative-tag.
May I eat it ?

(32 l.) tu a kərše ke ?

you this will do putative-tag?
Will you be able to do this ?

(A polite request in the shape of a question about the ability of the speaker)

4.3.4.3. Irony tag: kem

This tag which literally means 'how' introduces the notion of irony. The speaker is implied to express surprise because the referent or the addressee had made a fuss about performing that action and has finally got round to do it. Tagging a sentence with it, implies 'so at last' i.e. finally the person referred to has consented to perform the activity implied in the sentence.

(32 m.) tu ave che, kem ?

you come+prest. are irony tag.
So finally you are coming.

(The addressee made a fuss about coming)

Quite often, it is preceded by khōrū, as if the speaker is still not sure of the intentions of the addressee.

(32 n.) to tu a šak khawano khoro, kem?

so you this vegetable eat+fut.part. quest.tag irony tag
So finally, you are going to eat this vegetable?
(The addressee has made a fuss about eating.)

4.3.4.4 Dubitative tags:

emke introduces the idea of doubt.

(32 o.) tu kale jøvano, emke ?

you tomorrow go, is that so.
So, you are going tomorrow ?
(Lit. Is it true that you are going tomorrow ?)

4.3.4.5. Sentence Initial Tag: /to/ is used to mark the sentence initial tag and has the value of the 'so' tag in English.

(32 o.) to tu jay che

so you going are ?
So, you are going.

/to/ can also be prefaced by /ty'are/; 'then' and has the same value as the tag 'so then' in English.

(32 o.) tyare to e ave che.
then so he come+prest. is
So then, he is coming.

/to/ can also be used at the end of the sentence, in which case it is normally used with verbs such as bətaw, dekhad : show'; which introduce the idea of 'Let's see you do it'.

(32 o.) a šəbd ləkhi dekhad to.
this word write show so
Let's see you write this word.

(32 o.) a pətr ləkhi bətaw to.
this letter write show so.
Let's see you write this letter.

Chapter 5
Sample Texts

Text I

hathi ni māgruri
elephant gen. pride

ek	vəkhət	ek	hathi	həto	əne	ek	nəhanū	mæchər
one	time	one	elephant	was	and	one	small	mosquito
hətū.	hathi	ne	pota	na	bəl	viśay	ba'uj	māgruri
was.	elephant	acc.	self	gen.	strength	about	great	pride
mæchər	ne	jō	ine,	hathi	e	kəhyū	tu	həti
mosquito	acc.	see	conn. part.	elephant	erg.	said	you	so
nəhəlo	che	ke	hū	tə	ne	ma'rā	pəg	het'həl
small	are	that	I	you	acc.	my	foot	below
pəl	mā	kəri	nakhū.	mæchər	e	jəwab	apyo:	hū
moment	in	crush	can	mosquito	erg.	answer	gave	I
nəhəlo	hoū	pən	mara	mā	koi	kəmi	nəthi.	tu
small	be	but	my	loc.	any	less	not be	you
ine	to	dekhad̄	a	sābhī	inē	hathi	e	me
conn. part.	emph. show.	this	hear	conn. part.	elephant	erg.	ma'nē	kəchr
pəg	ucəkyo	pən	mæchər	turənt	udjī	gəyū.	e	jə
leg	lifted	but	mosquito	immediate	flew	went.	it	go
ine	hathi	nā	kan	mā	pəthū	əne	əndər	
conn. part.	elephant	gen.	ear	loc.	got in	and	inside	
gəngəṇya	lagyū.	hathi	to	gənđo	thəi	gəyo		
humming	beginning.	elephant	emph.	mad	became	went		
əne	mæchər	ne	bəhar	kadh	vana	ghəna	prəytñə	kərya.
and	mosquito	gen.	out	take	inf. part.	many	attempts	did.
pən	mæchər	to	bəhar	nikle	na.	ene	hathi	pučhyū
but	mosquito	emph.	out	come	not.	him	elephant	acc.
kəm	bhai,	śū	kəho	cho.	bəl'van	kən?	chevətē	hathi
how	brother	what	say	are.	brave	who?	end in	elephant
e	har	māgi	əne	kəhyū:	mæchər	bhai,	məne	maph
dat	defeat	asked	and	said:	mosquito	brother	me	kəro
əne	bəhar	niklo,	mara	thi	vednā	nəthi.		
and	out	come,	I	from	pain	is not.		
mot̄a	thi	bihvū		nəhī				
big	from	to fear		not				
əne	nəhəla	thi	ləd̄vū	nəhī				
and	small	from	to fight	not.				

THE PROUD ELEPHANT

Once there was an elephant and a small mosquito. The elephant was very proud of his strength. Seeing the mosquito, the elephant said: "You are so tiny, I can crush you under my foot". The mosquito replied: "I may be small but I am just as good. Try and crush me". At these words, the elephant raised his foot, but the mosquito immediately flew off and sat in the elephant's ear and started humming. The elephant went mad and tried his best to get the mosquito out. But the mosquito would not come out. He asked the elephant: "Well, brother, what do you have to say ? Who is stronger ?" In the end, the elephant accepted defeat and said: "Friend mosquito, forgive me and please come out. I cannot bear the pain."

Fear not the big.
And do not fight with the small.

Text II
Proverbs and Idiomatic Expressions

ətilobh e pap nū mu].
avarice it sin of root.
Avarice is the root of all evil.

ədhuro ghəđo chəlkay.
empty vessel making noise.
Empty vessels make most sound

ag lage tyare kuvo khodvo.
fire start+past then well dig+imp.
Dig a well when the fire starts.
(Shut the stable door when the steed is stolen)

ulto chor kotwal ne dərđe.
to the contrary thief policeman dat. punish+prest.
The thief punishes the policeman.
(Rouguery supplants justice)

ujda gam mā erənđo prədhan.
desert country in castor-oil plant king.
In a desert area the castor-oil plant is king.
(In the country of the blind, one-eyed is King)

gəddha kya janę jafran ki bat ?
donkey what know+prest. saffron of talk ?
What does the donkey know of saffron ?
(Casting pearls before swine)

cəđhe te pədhe.
go up+prest. so fall+prest.
What goes up must come down.

nəhī bolya mā nəvguṇ.
no speak+part. in nine qualities.
Not speaking has nine qualities.
(Silence is golden)

hath e te sath e.
hand in that with in.

What is in the hand belongs to oneself.
(Ownership is nine-tenths part of the law)

koi ma na pet mā thi śikh ine nikəlyū nəthi.
one mother of stomach in from learn conn.part. emerge not be.
No one has come out erudite from his mother's stomach.
(No one is born learned)

khado khode te pade.
hole digs that falls.
He who digs a hole falls in it.

Text III

chatr	pratigna	bōhen
student	pledge	
bharat maro des che bādhā bharatiya mara bhai		
India my country is. all Indians my brother sister		
che hū mara desh ne cahū chū. hū mara des ne cahū		
are. I my country acc. loving am. I my country acc. loving		
chū. ane tena səmruddh ane vaividhya pūrnā varəsano məne gərvə che		
am. and its wide and varied full heritage me pride be.		
hū səday tene layək bənva prəytñə kəriś		
I always it worthy become attempt do will.		
hū mara mata pita, śikṣako ane vədjlō prətye adər	rakhis	
I my mother father, teachers and elders for respect	keep will	
ane dərek jən sathe səbhyaṭa thi vərtiś		
and every one with respect with behave will.		
hū mara des ane deśbandhəvo prətye vəphadari rakhvani		
I my country and countrymen for fidelity keep+conn.part.		
pratigna leū chū. temna kalyan ane səmruddh mā jo		
pledge taking am. Their well-being and prosperity in only		
marū sukh səmaylū che.		
my happiness lying is.		

Student's Pledge

India is my country and all Indians are my brothers and sisters. I love my country and I am proud of its rich and varied heritage. I shall always strive to be worthy of it.
I shall give respect to my parents, teachers and elders and treat everyone with courtesy.
To my country and my people, I pledge my devotion. In their well being and prosperity alone, lies my happiness.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arjunwadkar, K.S. 1987. *mārathi vyakarəṇ*. Vadani Pravad. Pune: Sulekha Prakashan.

Abbi, A. 1997. 'Reduplicated adverbs in Hindi'. *Indian Linguistics*. 58.3: 125-35.

Abbi, A. 1991. *Reduplication in South Asian Languages - An Areal, Typological and Historical Study*. New Delhi. Allied Publishers.

Aronoff, M. 1994. *Morphology by Itself*. Linguistic Inquiry Monograph no. 22. MIT Press. Cambridge: Massachusetts.

Belsare, Malhar Bhikaji. 1993. *An etymological Gujarati English dictionary*, 2nd ed., Asian Educational Services.

Bhatia, Tej K. 1995. *Negation in South Asian Languages*. Patiala : Indian Institute of Language Studies.

Bhayani, H.C. 1969. *thoqok vyakarəṇ vicar*. Vora and Company.

Borguese, E. 1854. *Grammar of the Marathi Language*. Bombay: American Mission Press.

Bureau of Indian Standards. 1999. *Indian Standard Code for Information Interchange*. UDC 681.3., New Delhi: BIS.

Cardona, George. 1965. *A Gujarati reference grammar*, University of Pennsylvania Press.

Carey, G. 1805. *Grammar of the mahratta Language*. Serampur: Mission Press.

Chaudhari, Raghuvira. 1982. *hindi-gujarati dhatukoś : hindi aur gujarati ki kriyavacak dhatuō ka tulənatmak ḍhyayan*, 1st ed., Lalabhai Dalapatabhai baratiya sōskriti vidyamandir.

Comrie, B. 1976. *Aspect*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Damle, M.K. 1911. *śastriy mārathi vyakarəṇ*. Pune: Damodar Sawlaram ani Mandali,

Dave, Jagdish. 1995. *Colloquial Gujarati : a complete language course*. Routledge.

Dave, R. 1967. 'A formant analysis of the clear, nasalised and murmured vowels in Gujarati'. *Indian Linguistics*. 28.1-30.

_____, 1977. *Studies in Gujarati Phonology and Phonetics*. Ph.D. dissertation. Cornell.

Dave, T. N. 1935. *A study of the Gujarati language in the 16th century (v.s.) : with special reference to the ms. Balavabodha to Upadeśmala (Trimbaklal Nandikeshwar)*, The Royal Asiatic Society.

_____, 1964. *The Language of Gujarat*, Ahmedabad:Gujarati Research Society.

Desai, U.N. 1972. *gujərati bhaśana ṣaṅgsadhək prətyayo*. Ahmedabad:University Granth Nirman Board.

Dhruva, N.M. 1920. *Gujarati self-taught*, Marlborough. London.

Divetia, N.B. 1921. *Gujarati Language and Literature*. Mumbai: Forbes Gujarati Sabha.

Doctor, R. D. 1996. *Gujarati Morphology*. Gist Internal Monographs. Centre for Development of Advanced Computing. Pune.

Doctor, R. D. 1999. *Writing Spell-checkers for Indian Languages: A Manual*. Gist Internal Monographs. Centre for Development of Advanced Computing. Pune.

Directorate of Languages. 1988. *Trilingual administrative dictionary (English-Gujarati-Hindi)*. 1st ed., Directorate of Languages, Gujarat State.

Dwyer, Rachel. 1995. *Gujarati: a complete course for beginners*, NTC Pub. Group.

Firth, J.R. 1957. 'Phonetic Observations on Gujarati'. *Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies*, 20. 231-241.

Gala, L.R. 1972. *Gala's model dictionary : for schools and colleges : Angreji-Angreji-Gujarati*. Deluxe ed., Gala Publishers : Dhanlal Bros.

_____, 1995. *Gala's supreme combined dictionary : English-English-Gujarati & Gujarati-Gujarati-English*. Gala Publishers.

Grierson, G.A. 1895. 'On the Stress Accent in Modern Indo-Aryan.' *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*. pp. 139-147.

_____, 1897. 'Gujarati', in *Linguistic Survey of India*, Vol. IX, Pt.2, pp 323-347.

Gujarat Vidyapith. 1992. *hindi-gujarati koś*, sudhareli vədhareli 4thi avruttī., Gujarat Vidyapith.

Gusain, L. 2003. *Mewati*. Muenchen: Lincom Europa.

Gujarat University. *winit jodtikoś*. Ahmedabad.

Heine, B. and Traugott E. Eds. 1991. *Approaches to Grammaticalization*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Hook, P. E. and Joshi, D.M. 1991. 'Concordant Adverbs and Postpositions in Gujarati.' *Indian Linguistics* 52:1-13.

Hook, P. E. 1995. 'The Compound Verb in Gujarati and its Use in Connected Text'. *śilpaśāmyitta (Consciousness Manifest): Studies in Jaina Art and Iconography and Allied Subjects in Honour of Dr. U.P. Shah*. R.T. Vyas, Ed. Vadodara: Oriental Institute. pp. 339-56.

_____, and Modi, B. 1997 'Fluid ergativity in Gujarati', University of Michigan, draft paper on line <http://www-personal.umich.edu/~pehook/qujflerg.html>.

_____, 1999. 'Competing Causatives in Gujarati'. *Vidyopasana: Studies in Honour of Harivallabh C. Bhayani*. P.J. Mistry and Bharati Modi, Eds. Mumbai and Ahmedabad: Image Publications. Pp 61-80.

_____, 2001. 'Where do Compound verbs come from? (and where are they going?)'. *The Yearbook of South Asian Languages and Linguistics 2001*. Peri Bhaskar Rao and Karumuri Venkata Subbarao, Eds. New Delhi: Sage. pp. 101-130

Jhaveri, M.L. 1978. *History of Gujarati Literature*. New Delhi. Sahitya Akademi.

Joshi, D.M. 1972. 'Gujarati verb-forms reconsidered', *3rd All-India Conference of Linguistics*. Hyderabad.

_____, 1973. 'The forms of copula 'h_ : to be', *4th All-India Conference of Linguistics*. Agra,

Joshi, R.B. 1900. *praudhabodh mərathi vyakərən*. Poona: Arya Bhushan Press.

Kothari, J. 1973. *bhaśa pərichay əne gujərati bhaśanū svərup*. gr̥anth nirmaṇ bord. Ahmedabad.

Kachru, Y. 1980. *Aspects of Hindi Grammar*. New Delhi. Manohar.

Lambert, H.M. 1971. *Gujarati Language Course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Masica, Colin P. 1991. *The Indo-Aryan Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Master, A. 1925. 'Stress Accent in Modern Gujarati' in *Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society*. New Series I. 76-94.

_____, 1940. 'Some English Loan Words in Gujarati' in *Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies*, 10. 25-30

McGregor, R. S. 1995. *Outline of Hindi Grammar*. 3rd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mehrotra, R.C. 1959. 'Hindi syllabic structure' in *Indian Linguistics*. 20:213-37.

_____, 1964. 'Hindi phonemes' in *Indian Linguistics*. 25: 324-346.

_____, 1965. 'Stress in Hindi' in *Indian Linguistics*. 20: 96-105.

Mehta, B.B and Mehta, B.N. 1945. *The Modern Gujarati-English Dictionary*. Vadodra. 1925.

Mistri, P.J. 1968. *Gujarati Verbal Construction*. California University. (unpublished mss).

Modi, B. 1987. 'Rethinking on 'Murmur in Gujarati''. *Indian Linguistics* 47: 39-55.

_____, 'The Relationship between Phonology and Morphology: Morphology Phonologised'. *Journal of the Oriental Institute*. Baroda. 38:291-303.

Nair, Usha. 1991. *An Intensive course in Gujarati*, Mysore: Central Institute of Indian Languages.

Pandey, Mayaprakasha. 1993. *hindi-gujərati kriyapədabəndhon ka vyətireki viśleshən 1*. samskārōn., Pasarva Prakashan. New Delhi.

Pandit, P.B. 1957. Nasalisation, Aspiration and Murmur in Gujarati'. *Indian Linguistics*. 17:165-222.

_____, 1958. 'Duration, Syllable and Juncture'. *Indian Linguistics. Turner Jubilee Volume*. 1:212-219.

_____, 1959. *gujərati bhaśanū dhvənisvərup əne dhvənipərvərtən*. Ahmedabad: Gujarat University.

_____, 1961. 'Historical Phonology of Gujarati Vowels' *Language* 37: 54-66.

_____, 1962. *Phonemic and Morphemic frequencies of Gujarati*. Linguistic Monographs Pune: Deccan College Postgraduate and Research Institute.

_____, 1974. *gujərati bhaśanā vidhayak bə ɻo*. gujərati sahityo itihas. Part 1. Ahmedabad.: Gujarati Sahitya Parishad.

Phadake, Gangadhar Shastri. 1842. *The principles of Gujarati grammar : comprising the substance of a Gujarati grammar*, Printed at the Imperial press by M. S. d'Azaveido.

Shah, J., R. T. Mali, B. B. Patel, and R. D. Shukla. 1990. *bhaśa pəricay* (Introduction to the Language). Surat Dakshin Gujarat Pradhyapak Pustak Prakashan.

Ranina, N. R., 1985, *A manual of English- Gujarati dictionary əngreji-gujarati dikṣanri*. Asian Educational Services.

Schmidt, Ruth Laila. 1999. *Urdu: An Essential Grammar*. London: Routledge.

Shapiro, Michael C. 1989. *A Primer of Modern Standard Hindi*. Delhi: Motilal Banarsidas.

Shastri, K.K. 1963. *gujərati vyakərənśaśṭra*. Mumbai: Forbes Gujarati Sabha.

_____, 1964. *gujərati bhaśano vikas əne ərvacin gujərati bhaśanū svərup*. Ahmedabad.: Bharat Prakashan.

_____, 1969. *gujərati manya bhashanū ləghu vyakərən*. Ahmedabad.

_____, 1970. *bhaśa əne gujərati bhaśa*. Ahmedabad.: Jyoti Prakashan.

Taylor,G. P. 1944. *The Student's Gujarati Grammar*, Surat.

Tisdall, W St. Clair Towers. 1892. *A Simplified Grammar of the Gujarati Language*, reprint. 1961, New York.

Teraiya, P.S. 1970. *gujərati bhaśana dvirukt prəyog*. Saurashtra University.

Trivedi, K.P. 1919. *gujərati bhaśanū bruhəd vyakərən*. Bombay : Macmillan and Company Ltd.

Turner R.L. 1915. 'The Indo-Aryan nasals in Gujarati'. *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*. 1033-1038.

_____, 1921. 'Gujarati Phonology' *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*. 329-365, 505-44.

_____, 1966. *A comparative dictionary of the Indo-Aryan Languages*. London: OUP.

The Unicode Consortium, 2003. *The Unicode Standard, Version 4.0.0*, defined by: The Unicode Standard, Version 4.0. Boston, MA, Addison-Wesley.

Vyas, Y.D. 1974. *bolivignan əne gujərati bolio*. University Granth Nirman Board. Ahmedabad.

_____, 1972. "Social Factors controlling Gujarati sibilant variation" *2nd All-India Conference of Linguistics*. Delhi.

_____, 1977. *gujərati bhaśanū vyakərən*. Ahmedabad : Gujarat University.

Zograph G.A. 1983. *Languages of South Asia*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Map of Gujarat



Copyright (c) Compare Infobase Pvt. Ltd. 2001-02.

LINCOM Studies in Indo-European Linguistics

In this series:

01 John M. Peterson Grammatical Relations in Pali and the Emergence of Ergativity in Indo-Aryan

02 Yogendra Yadava Issues in Maithili Syntax

05 Nathalie Schapansky Negation, Referentiality and Boundedness in Gweneged Breton.

08 Moreno Morani Introduzione alla Linguistica Latina

09 Moreno Morani Introduzione alla Linguistica Greca

12 Shaligram Shukla Hindi Phonology

14 Vit Bubenik Morphological and Syntactic Change in Medieval Greek and South Slavic Languages

15 Shaligram Shukla Hindi Morphology

20 F. J. Ledo-Lemos La palabra "mujer" en indoeuropeo

21 Sabine Heinz Welsh Dictionaries in the twentieth century: a critical analysis

22 Jasmine Dum-Tragut Word order correlations and word order change: an "applied-typological" study on literary Armenian varieties

24 Behrooz Mahmoodi Bakhtiari Tense in Persian

25 Erik John Anonby A Phonology of Southern Luri

26 John Marangozis A Short Grammar of Hieroglyphic Luwian

27 F. J. Ledo-Lemos Femininum Genus
A Study on the Origins of the Indo-European Feminine Grammatical Gender

28 Raimond Doctor A Grammar of Gujarati